

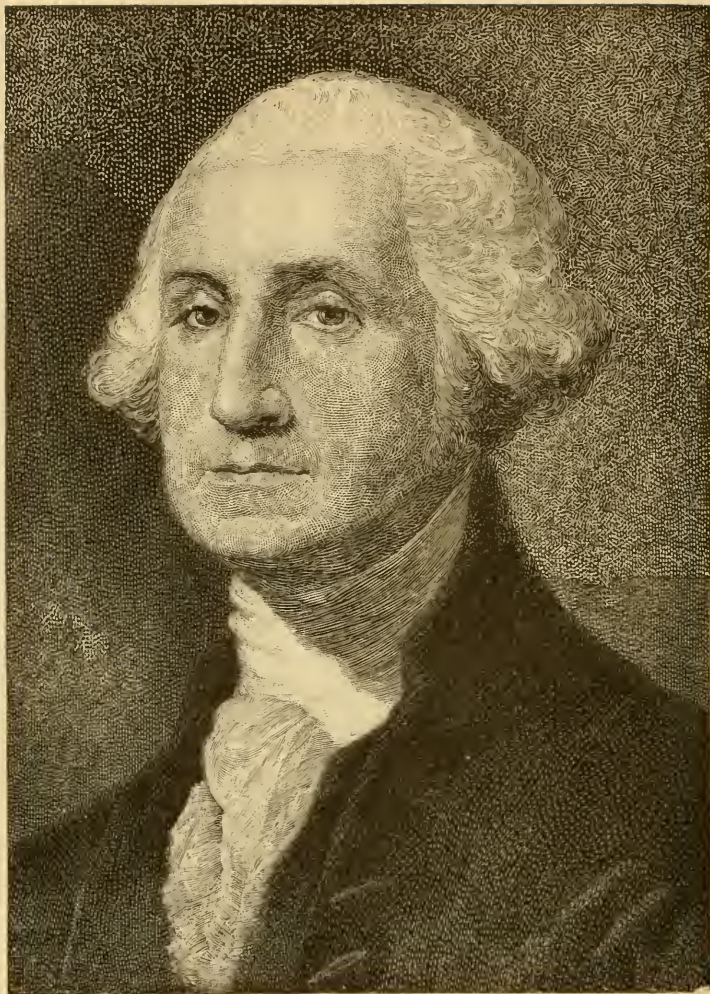
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George Washington

HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE

BY

JOSIAH H. SHINN

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PREFACE.

THE aim of this book is to present the history of our country in a somewhat more elaborate form than is usually adopted in books of this class. An experience of eighteen years as a teacher of youth from eleven to twenty years of age has led the author to believe that the power of history is too frequently lost in an attempt to simplify it unduly. Reason has begun its vigorous work at the ages named, and its habit is to seek for the language of maturity rather than for that of childhood.

Another aim is to unfold and display the neglected history of many parts of our country.

In the preparation of the book, the archives of many States, old manuscripts, State and private libraries, have been carefully consulted. Nearly every book that historians recognize as an authority has been studied, and in cases of conflict the truth has been diligently sought for.

The fact is recognized that many fables or myths have crept into the sacred domain of history; but this has not been made a warrant for an indiscriminate rejection of the many truths that incredulity has attacked.

In the case of the disputed voyage of Vespucci, although involved in much doubt, the common decision of modern scholarship has been permitted to outweigh the ingenious theories of Varnhagen and Fiske.

In political matters even-handed justice has been invoked upon every question. It is believed by the author that the full

presentation of both sides of every question is the surest and most direct route to truth, and that truth is the only basis for a common love of country.

An honest endeavor has been made to be accurate, clear, and impartial. Every line has been penned with a sincere desire to magnify the greatness of the whole country by presenting faithfully the wisdom, prowess, and worth of every part.

JOSIAH H. SHINN.

CUMBERLAND PLACE,

LITTLE ROCK, ARK.

CONTENTS.

PART I. — PREHISTORIC AMERICA.

CHAP.	PAGE
I. THE MOUND BUILDERS.....	9
II. THE INDIANS	14
III. THE NORTHMEN	20

PART II. — EXPLORATION AND ADVENTURE.

IV. SEARCH FOR A WESTERN ROUTE TO ASIA.....	25
V. EXPLORATION OF THE COASTS	36
VI. EXPLORATION BY SPANIARDS AND HUGUENOTS.....	41
VII. ENGLISH EXPLORATIONS.....	48
VIII. EXPLORATIONS OF THE FRENCH	54

PART III. — ERA OF SETTLEMENT AND COLONIAL DEVELOPMENT.

IX. THE FIRST ENGLISH SETTLEMENT.....	63
X. DEVELOPMENT OF THE VIRGINIA COLONY	71
XI. SETTLEMENT OF NEW ENGLAND.....	77
XII. UNITED NEW ENGLAND	84
XIII. THE DUTCH COLONY OF NEW NETHERLAND.....	90
XIV. THE FALL OF NEW NETHERLAND.....	95
XV. NEW JERSEY	100
XVI. PENNSYLVANIA.....	103
XVII. MARYLAND	108
XVIII. NORTH CAROLINA.....	112
XIX. SOUTH CAROLINA.....	117
XX. GEORGIA.....	121

PART IV. — STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY BETWEEN THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH.

XXI. THE FRENCH IN LOUISIANA.....	129
XXII. THE EARLY COLONIAL WARS	133
XXIII. FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.....	139
XXIV. FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, Continued.	145

PART V. — REVOLUTION AND INDEPENDENCE.

XXV. OPPRESSIVE LEGISLATION	153
XXVI. COLONIES ORGANIZING FOR RESISTANCE.....	164
XXVII. OPENING SCENES OF THE REVOLUTION.....	171
XXVIII. CAMPAIGN OF 1776.....	178

CHAP.	PAGE
XXIX. CAMPAIGN OF 1777.....	186
XXX. CAMPAIGNS OF 1778 AND 1779	192
XXXI. CAMPAIGN OF 1780	199
XXXII. EVENTS WEST OF THE MOUNTAINS	204
XXXIII. CAMPAIGN OF 1781.	212
XXXIV. STATE AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENT	218
XXXV. THE WEST, AND STATE EDUCATION.....	226

PART VI. — RISE OF THE REPUBLIC.

XXXVI. WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION	233
XXXVII. ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION	242
XXXVIII. JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION	245
XXXIX. MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION	252
XL. MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION	268
XLI. JOHN QUINCY ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION.....	275
XLII. JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION.....	280
XLIII. VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION.....	288
XLIV. HARRISON-TYLER ADMINISTRATION	292
XLV. POLK'S ADMINISTRATION	300
XLVI. TAYLOR-FILLMORE ADMINISTRATION.....	307
XLVII. PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION.....	312
XLVIII. BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION	317

PART VII. — THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY WAR.

XLIX. LINCOLN'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION (Events of 1861).....	329
L. LINCOLN'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION (Events of 1862)	339
LI. LINCOLN'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION (Events of 1863, East).	349
LII. LINCOLN'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION (Events of 1863, West)	354
LIII. LINCOLN'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION (Events of 1864).....	363
LIV. LINCOLN'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION	372
LV. JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION	378

PART VIII. — THE RECONSTRUCTED UNION.

LVI. GRANT'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION	385
LVII. GRANT'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION	390
LVIII. HAYES'S ADMINISTRATION	394
LIX. GARFIELD-ARTHUR ADMINISTRATION.....	399
LX. CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION.....	403
LXI. HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION	408
LXII. CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION	414
LXIII. MCKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION	416

LIST OF MAPS.

NORTH AMERICA, SHOWING INDIAN TRIBES.....	18, 19
FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.....	134, 135
REVOLUTIONARY WAR.....	154, 155
WAR OF 1812	254, 255
THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY WAR.....	322, 323
GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES	422, 423

HISTORY OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE.

PART I.—PREHISTORIC AMERICA.

CHAPTER I.

THE MOUND BUILDERS.

Chief Topics.

Occupants of America.
Ancient Earthworks.
What they teach.

Distribution of Earthworks.
Their Probable Age.
Who built them.

1. America has been occupied by (1) the Mound Builders; (2) the Indians; (3) the Northmen; and (4) Europeans of the Spanish, French, Dutch, Swedish, and English races.

2. Ancient Earthworks.—In many parts of the Mississippi Valley, earthworks are found which appear to be the remains of ancient fortresses or defensive structures, dwelling-houses, and burial sites. These mounds of earth are of peculiar shapes: the general forms being (1) low, circular burial heaps; (2) huge truncated pyramids; (3) embankments; (4) effigies; (5) stone cairns; (6) house sites. They vary in size from a few feet in circumference and elevation to structures with a circumference of two thousand feet and an altitude of from sixty to ninety feet. One in Mississippi covers a base of six acres. The ramparts, or fortifications, inclose from a hundred to four hundred acres, and are from six to thirty feet high. One in Missouri incloses four hundred acres. They are generally nearly exact circles or squares. Others in Wisconsin take the shapes of men, birds, and quadrupeds. An earthwork on Spring Creek,



Relics from Ancient Earthworks.

in Tennessee, contains the remains of a walled town. At Newark, Ohio, a complex structure has been found covering an area more than two miles square, while one in Adams County, in the same state, bears the appearance of a serpent. It is about a thousand feet long. One has been found near St. Louis covering eight acres of ground. In Arkansas several mounds have been examined, and found to contain tools made of copper, ornaments of copper and silver, stone pipes, and clay pottery decorated in a most skillful manner.

3. What we learn from these Earthworks.—In a general way the earthworks take the place of a written history of those people who had no well-developed written language. They tell us Indian habits, Indian beliefs, and Indian arts in a better way than all their other works have done. The gifts in the graves show their arts and customs, together with their home life and their regard for the dead. Their religions and superstitions are also shown in the modes of burial. The pyramidal mounds, the inclosures, the canals, and the walls show their character and strength as tribes. The differences in the burial rites and earthworks help us to a better knowledge of their tribal differences, and from this we learn the respective areas occupied by various tribes during the mound-building period.

4. Areas occupied by Different Peoples or Tribes.—From a careful exploration of these earthworks by scientific men

appointed by the government,¹ it appears that the following areas were occupied by different peoples during the mound-building age, although the evidence leads to the belief that these were of a common origin or ancestry:—

(1) *The Wisconsin District.*—Southern Wisconsin, northern Illinois, and northeastern Iowa. The characteristic is the emblematic or effigy mounds.

(2) *The Illinois District.*—Eastern Iowa, northeastern Missouri, and central Illinois. The characteristics are the conical tumuli or burial places, the wooden or stone vaults, absence of pottery, frequency of pipes, and the presence of copper axes.

(3) *The Ohio District.*—Ohio, western part of West Virginia, and eastern Indiana. Much of all that is found here allies this with the Gulf district (6), but it has some distinctive characteristics. These are the great circles and squares and parallel lines of earthen walls, the altar mounds, the carved stone pipes, the peculiar forms of pottery, and the modes of burial.

(4) *The Appalachian District.*—Western North Carolina, eastern Tennessee, southwestern Virginia, and southeastern Kentucky. Many things have been found in this region in graves made within the historic time, which correspond to things of a similar character found in the three preceding divisions. These show beyond any reasonable doubt that the ancestors of the Cherokees were the inhabitants of these other regions.

(5) *The Tennessee District.*—Southeast Missouri, Arkansas,² middle and western Tennessee and Kentucky, Mississippi, Lou-

¹ The United States Government, through its Bureau of Ethnology, employs scientific men, eminent scholars, and trained experts to ascertain in a comprehensive way all that is to be learned about the historic and prehistoric races of America. This bureau, although yet quite young, has done more towards a solution of these questions than all other agencies combined.

² The house sites in southern Arkansas are numerous, and change into low mounds from one to three feet high, containing in nearly every case a layer of clay and ashes. The custom was to bury the dead in the floor, burn the dwelling, and cover the embers while yet alive with dirt. The pottery in Arkansas and Louisiana is remarkable for its character and ornamentation.



An Ancient Burial Mound.

isiana, and the Wabash valley. The characteristics are the large mounds (in some cases pyramidal, truncated, or terraced), ditches, canals, stone coffins, and circular house sites. This is the great pottery region, the principal forms being the long-necked, the gourd-shaped, and the image vessels.

(6) *The Gulf District.*—This region is very much like the Tennessee District. The great difference is in the forms of the pottery, and in the modes of burial.

5. Age of Earthworks.—There is nothing to justify the opinion that these earthworks are of great antiquity. The trees found growing on them are no proof of immense age. The growth of forests within the historic age has proved that the rings of trees are no sure indication of age. Many Spanish tools are found in these graves, which fact proves a contact of the mound builders with the white race. Modern history shows that the Indians of the Gulf States were mound builders. De Soto said, "The Indians try to place their villages on elevated sites, but, inasmuch as in Florida there are not many sites of this kind where they can build, they erect elevations themselves." Again: "The chief's house stood on a very high mount made by hand for defense." Another writer says, "When

the chief of the Natchez dies, they demolish his cabin, and raise a new mound, on which they build the cabin of him who is to be chief."¹

6. Indians and Mound Builders the same.—The belief held by Bishop Madison of Virginia, that all the earthworks of the United States are of Indian origin, is gaining ground as explorations and comparisons increase. Many distinct stocks of the present Indians were mound builders. Many other mound-building stocks were in existence during the early history of the country. There is no need of resorting to lost tribes or stocks for the culture or art indicated by the relics in the mounds or ruins. Many historic Indian tribes were sufficiently advanced in these respects to be the authors.²

¹ The age of the mounds in the Mississippi Valley is placed at about thirteen hundred years. It is claimed that the Cherokees made the mounds of East Tennessee and West North Carolina, the ancient earthworks of the Kanawha Valley, and the principal mounds of Ohio. The proof is equally strong that the Shawnees are the authors of the box-shaped stone graves of Kentucky, Tennessee, and North Georgia, as well as of the graves around Cincinnati. The stone graves in the valley of the Delaware, and most of those in Ohio, were made by the Delawares. The ancient works in North Mississippi were built by the Chickasaw, and those in Arkansas by the Akansa, tribes; those about the Flint River, Georgia, by the Uchees; while the most of those in the Gulf States were built by the Muskogees. The effigy mounds of Wisconsin were probably made by the Winnebagoes, while the Iroquois established the earthworks of New York. Some have averred that the Yucatec is the original inhabiting race in America, and that the highest development of this people was in Central America.

² At the time of the conquest of the southwestern part of the United States, about sixty pueblos were discovered. During the conquest, about half of them were destroyed. These pueblos were villages of untooled stone. The ruins of thirty-one of these still remain. They were the work of the Navajos (a group of tribes of the Athabaskan family) and the Ceaninis (who live on the south side of the Grand Cañon of the Colorado).

CHAPTER II.

THE INDIANS.

Chief Topics.

Physical and Mental
Characteristics.
Family Relation.

Tribal Relation.
Property Rights.
Distribution.

7. The American Indians have straight, coarse black hair, slight beard, small black eyes, narrow eyebrows, and prominent cheek bones. They are called "red men," but no race on the earth presents so great a variety of color. The variation in stature is equally marked.



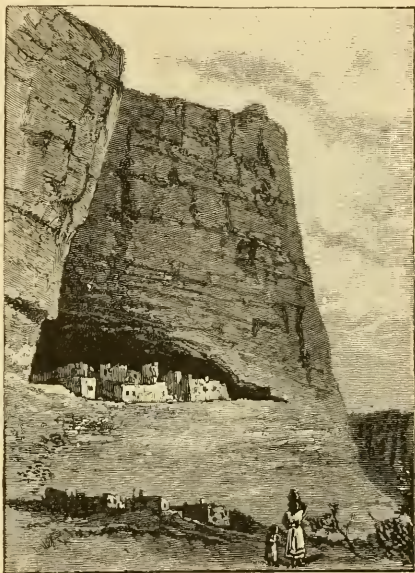
Indian Warrior.

From the dwarfish Eskimos, Peruvians, and Fuegians to the gigantic Patagonians is a step from the lowest to the tallest race on the globe. The difference is still more varied when we look at mental capacity. The Cherokees of North Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia, and Alabama invented a complete syllabic writing system, and could reckon to a million with accuracy. The Chiquitos of Bolivia could not count at all. Between the highest and the lowest was every degree of capacity. In North America alone more than five hundred different languages were spoken by the different Indian tribes. Each language stock had its own

philosophy and as many branches of this as there were branches of language or dialect. The absence of a written language accounts for very many of these differences.

The Indians differed also in physical achievements. Some lived by hunting, some by fishing, some by gathering vegetable products, and others by a rude cultivation of garden patches. Some had fine herds and flocks, others built villages and carved their homes in the faces of the cliffs. At the discovery of the continent, nine tenths of the tribes in the mound district had fixed homes, and cultivated the soil.

In Mexico and Peru they built large cities with massive temples and houses of stone, while others built paved roads, reduced their language to permanent form, and carved designs with skillful hand into the lasting body of the solid rock. The majority of the Indians, however, were idlers, and followed no pursuit save the chase and war.



Cliff Dwellers in New Mexico.

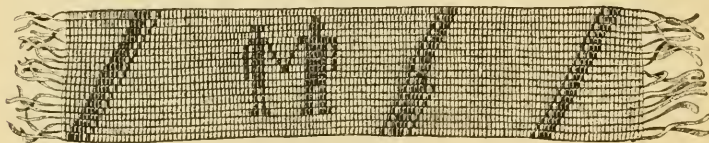
They gloried in a personal independence, and recognized no authority which curbed their will or thwarted their purposes.

8. Characteristics.—The Indian was brave, cruel, and ferocious. He was noted for his endurance of fatigue or pain. His oratory was heated and exciting, quickly rousing his companions to the fight; but he was almost entirely lacking in the ability to reason closely, or to express himself accurately either in speech or in writing. He was ignorant and superstitious. His heaven was a series of happy hunting grounds. In the time of peace he was gloomy, lazy, improvident, and addicted to gambling. He

would not work. His wife cut the wood, carried the burdens, cultivated the ground, prepared the food, dressed the skins for his clothing, and built the wigwams.

9. The Indian Family.—To compensate for this drudgery, the woman was called the head of the family. The “family” was nearly synonymous with our English word “household.” All the persons occupying one lodge composed the family. The gens was an organized body of blood kin in the female line. Each gens took the name of an animal, as Deer, Bear, Mud-turtle, etc. In speaking of an individual, he was said to be a wolf, a deer, or a bear, as the case might be, meaning thereby that he belonged to that gens.¹

10. The Indian Tribe.—A tribe was a body of kindred. The Indian woman was the head of the family, but the man was chief or sachem of the tribe. The government of the tribe was carried



Wampum Belt.

on by means of councils. At these councils all were permitted to speak. Before doing this, however, the leader of some gens called them to order, filled and lighted a pipe, sent one puff of smoke towards heaven and another towards earth, and passed the pipe to the sachem. The sachem filled his mouth with smoke, and, turning to the right, slowly puffed it out over the heads of the councilors, who were sitting in a circle. He then handed the pipe to the man on the left, who puffed it and gave it to the next in turn, who did the same, until it passed around the cir-

¹ The “totem,” or badge, indicated by the picture upon it the gens of the wearer. It was the coat of arms of the Indian nobility. The grave-stones were frequently marked by the “totem,” and it was also used as a seal. The Indians believed that they were descended from the spirit of the particular animal pictured upon the “totem,” and revered it accordingly.

cle.¹ Each man then spoke, and, when all were through, the sachem decided what had been agreed upon. After a man had spoken, it was considered dishonorable to reverse his decision.

11. Property Rights.—In a rude way the Indians recognized certain rights, and required certain duties. These were prescribed not so much by statute law as by custom or usage. The rights were marriage, names, personal adornments, order in encampment and migration, property, person, community, and religion. The property and communal rights rested upon the broad principle that the men do the fighting, the hunting, and the fishing, while the women do the work. In carrying out this principle, the wigwam and all articles of the household were the property of the head of the family, and at her death passed to the eldest daughter or the nearest female kin. The man was permitted to own his clothing, his hunting and fishing implements, and a canoe.²



Moccasins.

12. Distribution.—By looking at the map,³ it will be seen that the Shoshones, Dakotas, and the Algonquins⁴ were the most powerful groups of tribes, and occupied nearly all of the United States and British America. Within the territory of the Algonquins lived the Huron-Iroquois, — a confederacy of five vigorous tribes. They had made some advancement over the Algonquins. They tilled the soil, and had respectable villages. The Cherokees and Mobilians had made even greater progress.

¹ The record of each council was kept by means of a belt, upon which pictures were drawn by means of beads of different colors. This belt was called "wampum," and the men who translated its meaning were wampum interpreters. The beads sometimes served the purpose of money.

² The artistic skill of the Indian was exhibited in the manufacture of the snowshoe, the moccasin, and the birch-bark canoe. No covering for the foot has ever equaled the moccasin, which is pliant, durable, and noiseless.

³ See next page.

⁴ At the discovery of America the Algonquins began to decline in numbers. Only a few are left.





NORTH AMERICA

Showing the Structure of the Continent,
The Distribution of Aboriginal Tribes.

1000 Miles
500 Miles

CHAPTER III.

THE NORTHMEN.

Chief Topics.

Discovery of Iceland and Greenland.
Discovery of Markland and Vinland.

Settlement in Vinland.
Disappearance of Northmen.

13. Iceland and Greenland.—Iceland is almost at the door of Greenland, and is also close to Norway. King Arthur is said to have conquered the savages of Iceland in the sixth century. Thither went the Irish in the ninth century, with monks and a



small colony for settlement. In A.D. 874 Ingolf Jarl (*Graf* or earl) of Norway entered Iceland with a band of Norse settlers. These built Ingolfshodi and Reikiavik.

The Irish left the island. Other Norsemen followed, and within fifty years a hardy republic of more than sixty thousand souls was established.

In A.D. 876 Gunnbjorn, driven westerly in his ship, sighted Greenland. After this, Eric the Red, an outlaw banished from Norway and also from Iceland, discovered Gunnbjorn's Land, and remained on its coast for about three years, exploring it pretty thoroughly. Hoping to clear his bad name, he sailed

back to Iceland, telling the people there that he had been to Greenland. He chose this pleasant name so that he might induce people to settle there. In this way the island got a name which was by no means appropriate. Settlements sprang up along the southwest coast of Greenland¹ wherever a habitable place could be found. Eric brought a priest to the new land, and thus introduced Christianity into Arctic America.

14. Markland and Vinland.—About 998 a Norseman or Northman, Bjarni Herjulfsson, with his vessel, was driven to the southwest from Greenland, and reported the sighting of level land. Two years later, Lief, son of Eric, took thirty-five com-



Norse Boat.

panions and sailed in quest of Bjarni's Land. He found first a barren shore stretching back to ice-covered mountains. He called it Helluland because of the stones. Farther south he found a sandy shore with a level forest country back of it. He

¹ The western colony of Greenland, in the fourteenth century, had ninety settlements and four churches; the eastern colony had a hundred and ninety settlements, a cathedral, eleven churches, two large towns, and three or four monasteries.

called it Markland, on account of the trees. Farther on he found grass with "sweet dew." Farther south and westerly, and "up a river," he found a large expanse of water. On the shores of this water he built huts for the winter, and sent out exploring parties. One of these found vines loaded with fruit, and Lief called the country Vinland. There is no reason for doubting any one of these statements concerning the Northmen. But we cannot identify with certainty the regions called Helluland, Markland, and Vinland.

15. Settlement in Vinland.—After this, Lief's brother, Thorwald, spent three winters in Vinland, exploring the country north and south. Thorfinn then sailed for this country with ships, live stock, and other necessities for a permanent settlement. After one severe winter, during which a son, who was named Snorro,¹ was born to the wife of Thorfinn, the Northmen appear to have abandoned their settlement, and gradually to have forgotten the very existence of Vinland.²

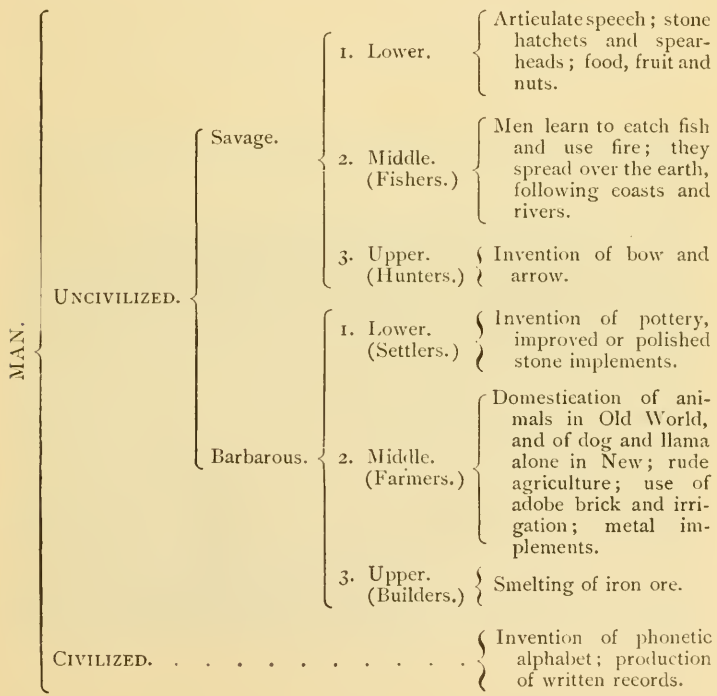
16. The Northmen continued to live in Greenland, where they maintained government, society, and commerce for about four hundred years. After this they were extinguished; but the ruins of the churches, houses, and baptisteries attest their occupancy. The cause of their extinction in Greenland is wrapped in as great mystery as the location and abandonment of Vinland. The inroads of the Eskimo, famine, and black death are each and all alleged as causes for this extinction.

¹ The famous Danish sculptor Thorwaldsen is said to be a descendant of this child born in the unknown wilds of America.

² The most probable location of Vinland was not farther north than Massachusetts Bay, possibly between Cape Cod and Cape Ann. The "Dighton Inscription" was long considered Norse, but this belief has been exploded. It was a kind of rock writing executed by the Algonquins, and thousands of similar inscriptions have been found in the United States. The old stone windmill at Newport has been foolishly credited to the Northmen. None of these errors invalidate the fact that the Northmen visited the eastern shores of the United States.

General Classification of the Progress of Human Development from the Lowest Stage of Savagery to the Lowest Stage of Civilization.

NOTE TO TEACHERS.—This classification is an effort to simplify a great general truth, and should be so considered. It will not fit every case that may be adduced, and will therefore bear modification; but, with this caution, it will be found of great value. Morgan's "Ancient Society" and Fiske's "Discovery of America," from which this scheme was prepared, are invaluable helps.



Application of the Preceding Table to Mankind.

Lower Savages. . . .	Prehistoric man.
Middle Savages	Natives of Australia.
Upper Savages. . . .	{ Columbia River tribes, Athabascans of Hudson Bay, and Fuegians.
Lower Barbarians . .	{ Algonquins, Iroquois, Creeks, Dakotas, and Chero- kees.
Middle Barbarians . .	{ Ancient Britons ; lake dwellers of Switzerland ; Zuñis, Aztecs, Mayas, and Peruvians.
Upper Barbarians . .	Greeks of Homer, Germans of the time of Cæsar.
Lower Civilization. .	{ Ancient Phœnicians and Egyptians, Hebrews after Exodus, rulers of Nineveh and Babylon, Aryans of Persia and India, Japanese, and Chinese.

*Pueblo of Zuñi.*

PART II.—EXPLORATION AND ADVENTURE (1492-1690).

CHAPTER IV.

SEARCH FOR A WESTERN ROUTE TO ASIA.

Leading Events.

Early Geographical Ideas.
Christopher Columbus (1436-1506).
His Plan to reach Asia (1474).
Isabella aids him (1492).

The Great Discovery (1492).
Voyages of the Cabots (1497).
The Name "America" (1507).
Magellan's Voyage (1519-21).

17. Prevalent Ideas.— Many Norsemen had thus seen America before the end of the fifteenth century; but their transient glimpses led to no certain results, and were therefore of little value to mankind. The most intelligent men at that time had no just conception of the real shape of the earth, while to the ignorant the ocean was a home for fabulous monsters of mighty power, whose breath moved the ocean into billows of wrath.

Some vague ideas were prevalent that the earth was round, and Eratosthenes had declared before the Christian era that but for the great width of the ocean it would be easy to sail west from Spain to India; but the mass of mankind, including very nearly all the sailors, had no such "unstable belief," and stubbornly maintained the flatness of the earth, and the squareness of the universe.

18. Prince Henry the Navigator.— The discoveries of the preceding century had brought to light the Canary and the Madeira Islands. Prince Henry of Portugal, called "The Navigator," was a master mind of that age. He had been to Africa, and from the Moors had learned of the coast of Guinea and of the

interior. This led him to believe that Africa could be circumnavigated. To find a new route to the East Indies, and thereby to divert its rich trade¹ from Italy to Portugal, was the grand idea of Prince Henry. He established a naval college, and installed therein the most eminent nautical professors. The fame of this college soon drew to it all the learning of the age; and, under the wise management of its president, this knowledge was reduced to a system. Maps were improved, the compass came to be better understood; and from its unerring power the Portuguese gathered a greater courage, and ventured farther out on the deep. Prince Henry explored the African coast from Cape

Blanco to Cape Verde. Stimulated by his successes, he steered farther out into the ocean, and discovered the Azores. He died in 1473.



Christopher Columbus.

19. Christopher Columbus.²—The first practical believer in the roundness of the earth was Christopher Columbus, of the city of Genoa, Italy. The enterprises of Prince Henry the Navigator stimulated Columbus, and in a great measure led to his larger idea of finding

India by sailing west. In 1474 he received from Toscanelli, a famous astronomer of Florence, a map of the world in which

¹ The rich trade of Asia, consisting of silk, gums, perfumes, precious stones, and other costly commodities, was monopolized by the Lombards. Venice and Genoa had become rich and powerful because of this eastern commerce. The merchandise had to be carried to the Mediterranean Sea by way of the Red Sea, or by way of the Persian Gulf, the Euphrates, and the Black Sea. Thence it was distributed over Europe by the opulent Venetian and Genoese merchants. Their depots were in the remotest parts of Europe, and they rivaled kings in their magnificent display.

² The Italian name is Cristoforo Colombo; the Spanish, Christoval

Asia was placed west of Europe, with a narrow strip of sea between them. The error in the calculations of Toscanelli and of Columbus arose mainly from their ignorance of the true size of Asia, which they thought was very much larger than it really is.

20. The Great Plan of Columbus.—Columbus had read and had been greatly impressed by the writings of Marco Polo and of Sir John Mandeville on Cathay and the far East. Because of the agreement of these two descriptions, Columbus followed them as authorities. Hence his maps of the East Indies made Cathay, Mangi, and Cipango the focus to which discovery was to trend. To reach these marvelous regions by sea, and to convert the great Khan to Christianity, were the leading ideas which led Columbus to plan the expedition which gave to Europe a new world.

21. To carry out his Design, he needed ships, sailors, and money. To obtain these it was necessary to have the help of some sovereign or ruling power. It has been asserted that his first offer was made to the Senate of Genoa, his native city. The proposition was rejected: in fact, many of the wise nobles of Genoa thought it the scheme of a madman. To get east by going west was contrary to experience, and therefore impossible.

Columbus went next to John II. of Portugal. John listened to him with partial favor, and referred him to a learned council

Colon; and the Latinized form, Christopher Columbus. Of the early days of Columbus little is recorded; and the date of his birth is not certainly known, though there is a tolerable certainty that he was born in 1436. His father, who was a wool-comber, was poor, and thus unable to give his four children the bounties of fortune or the graces of education. Christopher could read and write, and so well could he write that an eminent scholar has said, "With such a hand, he might have earned his bread." It is stated that he knew arithmetic, drawing, and design. Later he applied himself to grammar and the Latin tongue. His passion was geography, and no parental restraint could keep him from the sea. He went to Pavia, and learned geometry, geography, astrology, and navigation. In after life he attributed his early determination to study these things to an impulse from God.

upon geographical affairs. The council disagreed with Columbus. The King was not so easily convinced, however, that the theory of Columbus was not correct, and he determined upon a course which, if it had succeeded, would have robbed Columbus of his triumph. The King, upon the suggestion of one of his advisers, dispatched in secret a light frigate to traverse the seas westwardly for Cathay; but the frigate returned after a short absence without having accomplished anything. When Columbus discovered the treachery of the King, he sent his brother to England with offers to Henry VII., while he himself went to Spain. Here he remained nearly eight years.

22. Ferdinand and Isabella,¹ the Spanish sovereigns, were engaged in their final struggle with the Moors at Granada.



Queen Isabella.

Columbus was referred to a *junto* of learned men and professors of the University of Salamanca. Columbus argued from his geographical knowledge. He was answered with texts from the Bible and with religious objections. Though many priests were convinced by his arguments, the *junto* decided that the plan was vain; and the King, while not convinced, confirmed the decision.

23. Isabella's Grand Decision.—At last, however, several of the great prelates of Spain persuaded the Queen to look with favor upon Columbus, and Isabella determined to undertake the mission upon her own responsibility. She dispatched a messenger after Columbus, and he was brought before the throne again. He repeated his previous demands. After some argument, the

¹ Ferdinand and Isabella, though husband and wife, were each rulers by separate right,—he as King of Aragon, she as Queen of Castile, which included the old kingdoms of Castile and Leon.

King said that there was no money in the treasury. Isabella answered with these memorable words: "I undertake the enterprise for my own crown of Castile, and will pledge my jewels to raise the necessary funds." The contract was then signed and sealed, and Columbus had succeeded at last. Next to the faith of Columbus, we should admire the faith of Isabella. Her perception was greater than that of the learned Senate of Genoa or of the learned societies of Spain. The simple decision of one woman has affected the world in a more wonderful way than the learning of all the scientific societies before her day.

24. The Great Preparation.—To obtain ships and seamen something more than money and royal favor was required. The owners refused to furnish ships for so desperate a service, and the boldest seamen shrank from the voyage. The King issued more absolute orders, requiring the magistrates along the seacoast to press into service such vessels as were needed, together with their masters and crews. This, however, failed. Confusion and disturbances followed, but no ships and no sailors were secured.

25. Martin Alonzo Pinzon.—At this juncture a rich navigator, Martin Alonzo Pinzon, became interested in the expedition. He and his brother agreed to lend Columbus money, to furnish one ship, and to go upon the journey themselves. The effect of this brave resolution was wonderful. Their friends and relatives agreed to go, and within a month they were ready for sea. Almost as much praise is due to the brave Pinzon as to the noble Queen. The fleet of Columbus, which has become immortal, consisted of three small vessels,—the "*Santa Maria*," the "*Pinta*," and the "*Niña*." The three boats left Palos on Friday, Aug. 3, 1492, with a hundred and twenty persons on board.

26. The Great Voyage.—Going southwest, the voyagers reached the Canary Islands on the 9th, where they remained three weeks, repairing the "*Pinta*." On the 6th of September Columbus set sail from the Canaries, and boldly entered the unknown ocean, steering west. For three days they remained in

sight of the island, after which the hearts of the crew failed them. They cried and lamented. They bellowed with fear. Home would never be seen again, and there was no hope. Columbus described the countries he hoped to discover, and promised them gold and riches. His confidence in his voyage, and his daunt-



Bradley & Ivates, Engr's, N.Y.

Map showing Routes of Voyages of Columbus.

less courage, brought about a partial confidence in the minds of the men. He kept two reckonings, so that the real distance sailed should not be known by the men. On the 13th of September he noticed a variation of the needle, and by plausible reasoning overcame the terror of his pilots. Deceived by herons,

floating herbs and weeds, becalmed by winds, and misled by clouds which took the shape of land, the crew became terrified, and began to grow rebellious. Some of them proposed to throw the commander overboard, and to turn back. The next day fresh signs of land appeared,—river weeds, and a branch of thorns with berries on it; then a reed, a small board, and a staff with carvings upon it. Rebellion gave way to expectation and joy.

27. The First Landing.—One night a light was seen in the distance, and at two o'clock on Friday morning, Oct. 12, 1492,¹ the gun from the "Pinta" was fired as a signal that land was seen. Eagerly they waited for the morning. As the sun came up from the eastern sky, the sailors of Spain beheld for the first time a new world. Drawing near to the shore, Columbus landed, and, upon touching the earth, kneeled down, kissed it, and gave thanks to God.² The whole crew followed his example. What a sight this must have been!—Columbus, richly dressed in scarlet, under the royal standard; around him his captains and men, richly dressed, with flowing banners; while before him, in wonder and awe, stand the naked savages, "the Indians." Columbus drew his sword, planted the royal banner, took possession in the name of Spain, and named the island "San Salvador."

28. The Return.—Columbus remained there three days, and then sailed around among the islands, discovering Cuba and Hispaniola (Haiti). He built a fort³ on the latter island, left a small garrison there, and on Jan. 4, 1493, started back to Spain. He reached Palos on the 15th of March, and was received with wonder. His march to Seville was a triumph. Every one, including Columbus himself, thought that the islands which had

¹ By the Gregorian or new-style calendar the date becomes Oct. 21; and the anniversary may be construed as being Oct. 12 or Oct. 21, according as reckoning is made by the old or new style calendar.

² The form of prayer used was adopted later, upon similar occasions, by Balboa, Cortes, Pizarro, etc.

³ The fort was called "La Navidad," and was built out of the timbers of the "Santa Maria," which was wrecked at that place.



Return of Columbus.

been discovered were near the eastern coast of India or Asia, and, as they had been reached by sailing westward, they were called the "West Indies."

29. Subsequent Voyages of Columbus.— Preparations were made for a second voyage. Seventeen vessels departed with twelve hundred souls, including many persons of note. This expedition started from Cadiz on the 25th of September, 1493. Upon reaching Haiti, Columbus found the fort a waste. Near the ruins a new city was started, which, in honor of the Queen, they called "Isabella." Mines were opened, but they did not yield much. Jamaica was discovered; but the lands discovered were not the rich lands which had been pictured by Polo. Enthusiasm died out. In 1498 the third voyage of Columbus was made. He discovered Trinidad and the northern coast of South America. Passing the mouth of the Orinoco, which he said came from some terrestrial paradise, he sailed on to Haiti. Here he was arrested, placed in irons, and sent to Spain. He landed in chains, which shocked both sovereigns and people, and effected his release. With four vessels he set out upon his fourth voyage. In 1502 he discovered and named many new islands, and reached the coast of Honduras. He sailed

south along Costa Rica, and reached the Isthmus of Darien. He returned to Spain in 1504. For the next two years he attempted to obtain his rights from the King, but without success. He died on the 20th of May, 1506, in poverty.

30. His Everlasting Monument.—There is a tradition to the effect that Ferdinand, as an offset to the great injustice he had done Columbus, ordered a monument to be erected to his memory, on which were inscribed the words in Spanish, “To Castile and Leon, Columbus gave a new world.” Washington Irving has said of this, “However great an honor a monument may be for a subject to receive, it is certainly a cheap reward for a sovereign to bestow. As to the motto inscribed upon it, it remains engraved in the memory of mankind more indelibly than in brass or marble,—a record of the great debt of gratitude due to the discoverer, which the monarch had so faithlessly neglected to discharge.”

31. John Cabot's Voyage.—In the spring of 1497 John Cabot, a Venetian residing in Bristol, England, encouraged by Henry VII., King of England, sailed westward upon the Atlantic with the purpose of finding a northern passage to China. Instead of finding this, he discovered a continent. Columbus had discovered the islands to the southeast of the present United States, but Cabot had found the mainland of America. No one can designate the point where Cabot first saw land: it was probably near Cape Breton Island, at the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.¹ He raised the English flag on the coast, and took possession of the country in the name of the English King.

32. Sebastian Cabot.—In 1498 Sebastian Cabot, son of John, made a voyage to the land which his father had discovered, and explored the whole region from Nova Scotia to Cape Hatteras. He drew a map² of the region, upon which he wrote the

¹ Some authorities name Labrador, others Newfoundland.

² In the Archives at Paris there is a map that was found in Germany that agrees with the above map except that the date is 1494. This is probably due to an error in reading M.CCCC.XCIII for M.CCCC.XCVII.

following words: "In the year of our Lord 1497, John Cabot, a Venetian, and his son Sebastian, discovered that country which no one before his time had ventured to approach, on the 24th of June, about five o'clock in the morning."

33. Upon these Voyages of the Cabots the English King¹ rested his claim to America, and paid for them a trifling pension, and a private gift of about fifty dollars. Thus the country was discovered. We shall now learn how it was named.

34. Naming the Continent. — Amerigo Vespucci² was born in Florence in 1452. The report of the discoveries of Columbus induced Amerigo to seek new lands. In two letters on his travels he described what he saw upon four different voyages, and placed the first voyage on the 10th of May, 1497. This, if true, would antedate Cabot, and establish Vespucci as the discoverer of the continent. Most investigators believe, however, that Vespucci was in Seville from the middle of April, 1497, to the end of May, 1498. That he made his first voyage at this date is denied, but that he made four voyages is quite probable. It is known, however, that before 1503 he had explored the east coast of South America nearly to Rio de la Plata. The three parts of the world then known were Europe, Asia, and Africa, and the discoveries in the west were supposed by all to be parts of Asia. This long-continuous coast did not fit any known land southeast of Asia, and it was supposed that it must belong to a great continental island — a new world — hitherto unknown. An account of the four trips of Vespucci was first published in St. Die, a little town in the Vosges Mountains. In the St. Die book these words occur: "And the fourth part of the world having been discovered

¹ Edmund Burke, a leading statesman of England, said in Parliament nearly three centuries later, "We derive our right in America from the discovery of Cabot, who first made the northern continent in 1497."

² The Latin form is Americus Vesputius. By a strange coincidence the three men most prominently connected with the earliest history of our country were all natives of the same land, — sunny Italy. Columbus was born in Genoa; Cabot, in Venice; Amerigo Vespucci, in Florence.

by Americus, it may be called Amerigo; that is, the land of Americus or America." Thus a professor of geography, Martin Waldseemüller, in a mountain college of French Lorraine, became the inventor of the word which in time came to stand for all the New World.

35. The Real Significance of the Discoveries. — Despite these discoveries, their real significance was not appreciated. Columbus died believing he had discovered only a new route to Asia. Even after South America became better known, it was believed by some to be but a peninsula projecting from Asia.

36. Magellan. — Between 1519 and 1521 the Spaniard¹ Magellan sailed southwest to the eastern coast of South America, followed the coast to the strait which bears his name, passed through it, and entered the great ocean which he named the Pacific. He coasted north for a long distance, and then set sail for the west over the broadest part of the sea. Some of his ships were lost, and Magellan died on the route;² but one ship doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and reached Spain after a complete voyage around the globe. This was the last and most convincing discovery that had been made. The strange coasts no longer meant a few islands or peninsulas belonging to Asia, but a separate continent, — a New World. This discovery magnified the work of Columbus, and showed mankind the real nature of our globe.³

¹ Magellan was a native of Portugal, but, upon being insulted by his King, he renounced his country with great form, and entered the service of Charles V. of Spain.

² He was killed on one of the East Indies. The King of Spain gave to the captain who reached home a coat of arms, on which a globe was pictured with the motto *Primus circumdedisti me* ("You first sailed round me").

³ Besides the strait which bears his name, Magellan discovered the Philippine Islands. These have belonged to Spain ever since. The crew, upon reaching Seville, were amazed to find that they had lost a day.

CHAPTER V.

EXPLORATION OF THE COASTS.

Leading Events.

Da Gama reaches India (1497).
Corte-Real at Newfoundland (1500).
Balboa discovers the Pacific (1513).

De Leon visits Florida (1513).
Pineda traces the Gulf Coast (1519).
De Ayllon in the Chesapeake (1526).

37. The Doubling of the Cape of Good Hope. — The Madeira Islands were discovered by an Englishman between 1327 and 1378. Cape Blanco was discovered by the Portuguese in 1445. Diego Cam reached the Congo coast in 1470. In 1487 he doubled the Cape of Good Hope, but did not proceed farther. In 1497 Vasco da Gama passed around the Cape, and sailed to Calicut in India. Thus the Portuguese were the first to reach the East Indies, and they held the trade of these rich regions for several centuries. This was more than twenty years before Magellan reached these regions by way of Cape Horn.

38. Gaspar Corte-Real. — In the year 1500 Gaspar Corte-Real set sail from Portugal, and explored the Newfoundland region. He made another voyage in 1501. He appears to have coasted the Atlantic shore of America from Delaware Bay to Baffin's Bay. He constructed the first Portuguese map of the new country. He named Labrador, and called Greenland "Ponta d'Asia." He was lost in the Arctic Seas.

39. Discovery of the Pacific. — Many expeditions between 1500 and 1513 were sent out by the Spaniards to explore and colonize the coast between Yucatan and the mouth of the Amazon. Upon one of these went Vasco Nuñez de Balboa. Being left in command of some colonists in Central America, he explored the surrounding country, and won the friendship of the Indians. One of them told him that on the shores of a sea to the south-

ward was a country where gold was to be obtained in enormous quantities. He determined to find the sea, and on Sept. 25, 1513, he, in company with sixty-seven men, reached the mountain from



Balboa discovering the Pacific.

whose top he had been told that it could be seen. When the ascent was made, his eyes rested upon the Pacific Ocean, which he named Mar del Sur, or South Sea. He thus became the discoverer of this grand ocean, although Magellan gave it its name.

40. Florida and Juan Ponce de Leon.—Florida appears upon the Cantino map¹ in 1502, but it is not certainly known when and by whom it was discovered.² Stories had reached Spain very early in the century that there was an island north of Cuba

¹ The principal maps published at this time were the map of Toscanelli (1474), used by Columbus; the chart of La Cosa (1500), showing Cuba as an island, and the Spanish, Portuguese, and English discoveries (see p. 38); the Cantino map, or that of Corte-Real (1502); and the map of Peter Martyr (1511). Between 1512 and 1515 the name "America" was generally adopted upon maps.

² This discovery is attributed by some eminent historians to the disputed first voyage of Vespucci. The track of this voyage was around Yucatan to the west, thence following the coast northeast and east to Florida, thence around this peninsula to a splendid harbor far to the north on the Atlantic coast, supposed to be Chesapeake Bay. Although involved in much doubt, the belief in this voyage, as indicated, is gaining ground. The discovery is also imputed to Corte-Real, and even to Sebastian Cabot.

with a fountain whose waters conferred perpetual youth. This legend came to the ears of Ponce de Leon, an old sailor who had been with Columbus on his second voyage, and led him to desire



to see the land. The King gave him permission "to proceed and settle the Island of Bimini," as the Indians called the unknown land to the north.

He sailed in 1513, and on Easter Sunday discovered the mainland. Because of the day, Easter Sunday, which in Spanish is *Pascua Florida*, he named the country "Florida." Turning southward, he followed the shore around Florida Reefs, and northward to Tampa Bay. He had not found Bimini, but he had found Florida. The King gave him a new grant to discover and settle the Island of Bimini and the Island of Florida. He had lost his energy, however, and it was several years before he set out again. He then determined to open Florida for settlement, and took with him, in 1521, horses, cattle, sheep, and swine. Where he landed in Florida is not certainly known; but, while attempting to build some houses upon the new shores, his men were set upon by the natives, and in the fierce fight which ensued he was struck by an arrow, from the effects of which he never recovered.

41. The Gulf Coast Line traced.—In 1519 Alvarez de Pineda, after a voyage of eight months in which he had coasted eastward from Mexico for many leagues, discovered the mouth of the Mississippi River.¹ Here he found a large Indian town. Going up the river for six leagues, he counted no fewer than forty Indian towns on the two banks. He said that the land abounded in gold, and that the natives wore gold trinkets in their noses and ears. The country discovered was called "Amichel." This voyage settled the shape of the country, dispelled forever the idea that Florida was an island, and proved that there was no strait by which a ship could reach Asia. Thus after ten years of effort the coast line from the Rio Grande, to the St. Johns in Florida, was made known. We shall now follow the coast to the north.

42. Lucas de Ayllon.—In 1520 a very rich Spaniard of Haiti aspired to the glory of discovering a new land and of placing a settlement upon it. He sent a fleet to the northwest, which landed at the mouth of a river which he called "St. John the Baptist," from the fact that the discovery was made on the day celebrated in honor of that saint.

¹ Called by him the "Espiritu Santo."

Seizing some Indians, the ships sailed to Haiti. De Ayllon disapproved of the act, and sent the Indians back, and had the coast explored for two hundred and fifty leagues. In June, 1526, De Ayllon himself, with six hundred persons, including women, clergymen, and physicians, with one hundred horses, sailed for the continent, but failed to land at St. John the Baptist. He reached the mouth of the Jordan, or Wateree. He is supposed to have gone westward into Georgia, and back to the place of landing. Losing one of his ships, he built another,—the first ship built in America.

He then sailed northward beyond Cape Trafalgar, or Hatteras, and reached Guandape, where he began the settlement of San Miguel, on the spot where the English a century later founded Jamestown. Houses were begun, but the cold weather and sickness discouraged the colonists. De Ayllon himself died of a fever in 1526. Strife and bloodshed followed between rival lieutenants, and it was resolved to abandon San Miguel. Thus ended the first attempt to settle Virginia and the Carolinas.

43. Spanish Explorations.—This was the last of a series of expeditions which traced the American coast from Central America on the Pacific side, southward to the Strait of Magellan, and northward along the immense east line to Baffin's Bay. Had the Spaniards possessed a genius for colonization equal to their eagerness for discovery, it would have made them the leading people in America. Within fifty years after the discovery, their ships had almost circumnavigated the continent; and the vast coast line had been by them so well defined as to give to their maps the outline now generally adopted.¹

¹ About the same time that De Ayllon sailed, Stephen Gomez of Portugal, one of the sailors of Magellan, under the directions of the King of Spain, sailed to Labrador. After examining its coast, he sailed south, and examined the whole coast from Cape Race to Florida. Upon his return to Spain, he made a map, and named after his own style nearly every bay along the coast.

CHAPTER VI.

EXPLORATION BY SPANIARDS AND HUGUENOTS.

Leading Events.

De Narvaez' Expedition (1528).
De Vaca's Wanderings (1528-36).
De Soto's Expedition (1539-42).

Ribault at Port Royal (1562).
Founding of St. Augustine (1565).
Massacre at Fort Caroline (1565-68).

44. De Narvaez' Expedition.—The King of Spain granted De Narvaez all the country on the Gulf of Mexico from the Rio de Palmas to Florida. In 1528 he sailed with about four hundred persons, mechanics and laborers, and landed at Apalachee Bay. He started inland with three hundred followers, and reached Apalachee. Not finding the great wealth that was expected, he started for the coast, and after much suffering and great difficulty reached St. Marks, where he constructed five boats¹ and embarked for Mexico. His boat was driven to sea, and was destroyed near the mouth of the Mississippi. The others were stranded on the coast of Texas near where Galveston now stands. The men were captured by the Indians and carried inland.

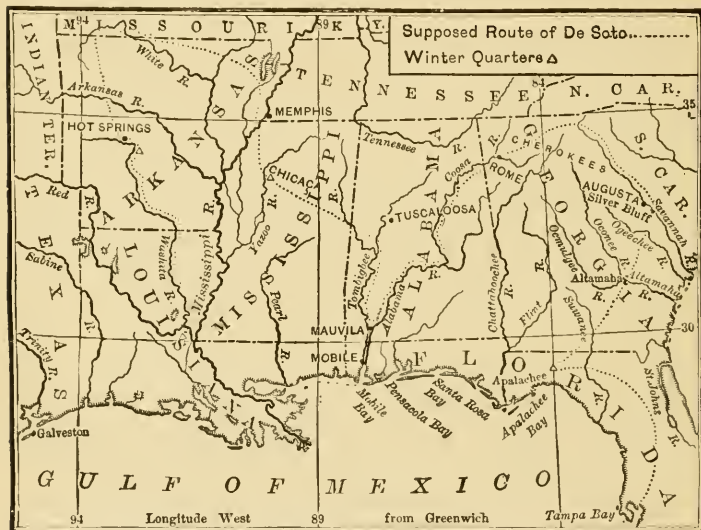
45. De Vaca in Arkansas.—Alvar Nuñez (surnamed De Vaca), a lieutenant of Narvaez, and three others, one being a negro slave, escaped from the Indians after a captivity of six years. They wandered through northern Texas² and southern Arkansas, wended their way along the Arkansas River for some distance, thence up the Canadian, thence across the wilderness

¹ The trouble of Narvaez at St. Marks while constructing his boats was very great. He was forced to kill his horses for food. He took the stirrups, spurs, and such other iron articles as he had, and made saws, axes, and nails. Ropes were made from the manes and tails of the horses. Shirts were used for sail-cloth.

² De Vaca is said by some to have reached one of the mouths of the Mississippi: others say that he crossed the Mississippi and entered Tennessee.

into New Mexico, and finally reached a Spanish settlement¹ on the Gulf of California in 1536. They had been absent about nine years. The expedition of De Narvaez was the rashest and most foolish ever planned in America, and it is saved from oblivion only by the marvelous adventures of De Vaca and the expeditions that grew out of them. De Vaca had proceeded on foot almost across the American continent, and could speak with knowledge of its enormous width.

46. De Soto in Georgia and Alabama.—But the expedition which excelled all other Spanish movements for high-born and well-trained men was that of Hernando De Soto. In 1538,



Map showing Supposed Route of De Soto.

amid the roar of cannon and the flourish of trumpets, he set out from San Lucar, accompanied by six hundred richly dressed nobles and ironclad warriors, to win fame and fortune in America.

¹ Compostela, twenty miles from the Pacific (latitude $21^{\circ} 10'$). Thence they went to the City of Mexico.

He remained in Cuba until 1539, when he sailed for Florida.¹ The Indians at his landing-place were friendly, but he had no regard for their rights or feelings. He was cruel and relentless, and his men said of him that he was very fond of the sport of killing Indians. Sending his ships back to Cuba, he began his weary march to the north through the lakes, streams, and everglades of Florida. The Indians, ever on the alert, attacked him at every step, and, although always defeated, they were never conquered. Even when chained as slaves, they rose upon their masters, and fought with ferocity. De Soto reached Apalachee, and held to the northeast. After a month he passed Altamaha, and arrived at the present Silver Bluff on the Savannah. The Spaniards desired to settle at this place, but De Soto refused to stop. Going north, he reached the northeastern part of the present State of Georgia, in the land of the Cherokees. He went west, and camped under the trees near where Rome now stands. After a month he went down the Coosa into Alabama to an Indian town, where, after a generous reception by the natives, he cruelly put them in irons. Going down the Alabama, he reached the Indian place Mauvila, near what is now called Choctaw Bluff, in Clarke County, Ala., where the bloodiest fight of early times was fought. The lowest estimate of the Indian loss is twenty-five hundred.* The Spaniards lost twenty-five, with a hundred and fifty wounded.

47. De Soto discovers the Mississippi.—Turning north, De Soto marched through the present counties of Clarke, Marengo, and Greene, where he fought several battles. He reached the Yazoo in December in a snowstorm, and remained there until March. Thence he went north to the lowest Chickasaw Bluff, where he discovered the Mississippi River² (1541),

¹ He landed on the west coast.

² Whether this makes De Soto, or De Vaca (who claims to have crossed one of its mouths in his wanderings in 1528), or De Pineda (who named its mouth "Espíritu Santo" in 1519), the first discoverer of the Mississippi, is a question which has never been settled.

and spent a month building four boats with which to cross it. Entering Arkansas, he marched northward and discovered a town,—"the greatest he had seen in Florida." He then crossed the Ozark Mountains, whence he turned southward and crossed the Arkansas River, and pushed on to the Washita River, where he stopped for the winter.¹ The winter was long and severe, and



De Soto discovering the Mississippi.

the suffering of the Spaniards was great. Two hundred and fifty of his proud force had left their bones to mark the path he had followed. De Soto gave up in despair, and set his face towards Cuba. He reached the mouth of the Red River, where he was attacked by fever, and died. His companions wrapped his body in blankets loaded with sand, and sank it into the Mississippi. His men, under Moscoso, went west into Texas, thence back to

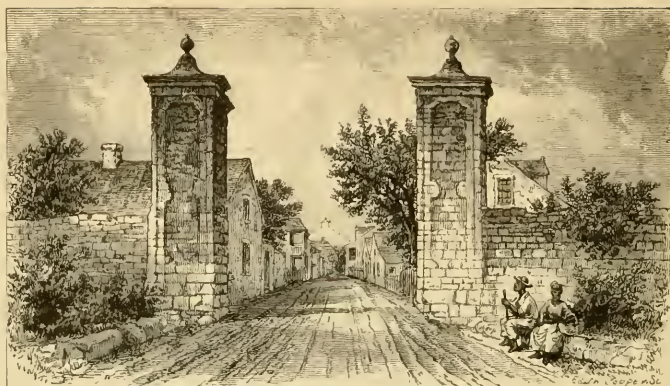
¹ Hot Springs, Ark., has been identified as one of the places visited by De Soto. The expression of the Spanish writers, "lake of very hot water," and the fact that there are salt wells situated in the vicinity, have led to this conclusion.

where De Soto died. They then floated down the Mississippi, and after nineteen days arrived at its mouth. In a short time they reached the Spanish settlements in Mexico. While this expedition was disastrous in every particular, it furnished the world with a clear idea of the country around the Gulf of Mexico, and dispelled forever the notion that it abounded in gold, or was the seat of rich Inca empires.

48. Settlement at Port Royal.—Ribault, a French Calvinist, took possession of Port Royal in 1562, and founded Charles Fort. This settlement was abandoned, but Laudonnière soon began another at Fort Caroline (1565). The news that French Protestants¹ had made a settlement at Port Royal inflamed the Spanish mind, and drew upon them Spanish vengeance.

49. St. Augustine founded.—The Spaniard Menendez sailed from Cadiz with fifteen hundred men, and landed near Cape Canaveral. Sailing on again, he discovered a splendid harbor, which he named "St. Augustine." In a few days he sighted the mouth of the St. Johns, and the flagships of Ribault carrying the colors of France. At ten o'clock at night Menendez attacked the French, and soon drove a part of their ships to sea; but the remainder were at the mouth of the river, and Menendez could not land. Foiled in this manner, he went back to the harbor and began the great historic town St. Augustine, the oldest town in the United States (1565). The Indians were friendly, and soon made him know that he had selected an admirable position not only for a settlement, but for the reduction of Fort Caroline. He had but to march inland a short distance, and to descend the St. Johns River to the fort.

¹ Spaniards called French Protestants "pirates." The truth is, that piratical vessels, under pretext of being Protestant, scoured the seas, and did great damage to Spanish vessels. In 1555 a French fleet surprised Havana, set the buildings on fire, and butchered the inhabitants. In 1559 Megander pillaged Porto Rico, and De la Roche plundered the settlements near Carthagena.



Old Gate at St. Augustine.

50. Butchery at Fort Caroline.— Meanwhile Ribault had resolved to attack St. Augustine from the ocean, but storms prevented his entrance at the harbor. While Ribault was delayed outside the harbor, Menendez, with five hundred men, through torrents of rain, swollen streams, and flooded lowlands, marched, or rather waded, to Fort Caroline. The French were taken by surprise, and made no defense. Menendez disgraced his name and his arms by the butcheries that followed. No quarter was given. The French were treated as pirates and heretics, and a hundred and thirty-two men were deliberately butchered after they had surrendered. Laudonnière and Le Moyne escaped. A part of the remaining ships were soon forced to surrender, and a hundred and eleven more persons were put to death in cold blood.

51. French Retaliation.— Menendez planted a fort near Port Royal, named San Felipe, explored the country inward to the silver region of the Cherokees, visited some of the towns named by De Soto, conquered the Indians, planted three posts, established order, and sailed to Spain. While he was absent, Dominique de Gourgues, a French slave, recaptured Fort Caroline (1568), together with many prisoners. He hanged the prisoners,

and placed an inscription on their breasts, "Not to Spaniards, but as to traitors, robbers, and murderers."¹

52. The First American Schools.—Menendez returned, bringing with him soldiers and missionaries, rebuilt Fort Caroline, or San Mateo, and explored northward to the Chesapeake. Fathers Rogel, Segura, and other missionaries, began work among the Indians. Brother Baez soon compiled a grammar and catechism in the Indian language. Rogel built houses and a church at Orista, near Port Royal, with a view to teaching the Indians the art of cultivating the soil. Thus near the Carolina coast was first begun the civilization of the Indians through literary and religious channels. But Menendez died in 1574, and with him died the activity of the infant settlements.²

¹ It has been reported that Menendez had placed upon the breasts of the Frenchmen whom he hung the words, "I do not this to Frenchmen, but to heretics." This is disputed.

² Other Spanish expeditions went northward from Mexico, both inland and along the coast. Coronado entered New Mexico in 1540, discovered the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, visited Cibola, and made his celebrated expedition to Quivira. Cabrillo and Ferelo in 1543 sailed up the Pacific coast as far as Oregon. Espejo in 1582 explored the upper Rio Grande. In 1595 Santa Fé was founded by colonists from Mexico. In 1592 Juan de Fuca explored the coast northward to the strait which bears his name. It was not until the beginning of the nineteenth century, however, that Vancouver's map was projected, clearly showing the continental form of North America.

CHAPTER VII.

ENGLISH EXPLORATIONS.

Leading Persons.

William Hawkins (1565).

Sir Francis Drake (1577).

Sir Humphrey Gilbert (1583).

Sir Walter Raleigh (1584-1600).

Bartholomew Gosnold (1602).

Martin Pring (1603).

George Weymouth (1605).

Henry Hudson (1609-10).

53. William Hawkins of Plymouth, England, a noted slave trader, after a voyage to the West Indies with negroes, returned by way of Florida. He noted what he saw of the peninsula with the greatest care, and gave an excellent description of its productions. This (1565) was the first English description of Florida.

54. Sir Francis Drake, another slaver, sailed from Plymouth, England, on Nov. 15, 1577, upon a voyage which added a great deal to his celebrity. He sailed through the Strait of Magellan, thence north on the Pacific along the coast of North and South America, to Drake's Bay¹ on the coast of California. He then turned his ship westward, and pursued his voyage around the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the twenty-sixth day of September, 1580, being the second person and the first Englishman to circumnavigate the earth.

55. Sir Humphrey Gilbert left England in 1583 to begin an English settlement. He had the favor of Queen Elizabeth and the help of Sir Walter Raleigh, his half-brother, but was unlucky in every other way. At Newfoundland he lost two ships; near Massachusetts another, with all its crew, went down, to be followed that night by the one that held Sir Humphrey. Not a man was saved, and one ship only reached England in safety.

¹ Several bays have been claimed as the one in which Drake anchored, but authority appears to favor the Bay of San Francisco.

56. Sir Walter Raleigh.—This courtier, sailor, and soldier sent out Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow in 1584, with two ships, to do what Sir Humphrey had failed to do. They reached the coast of North Carolina near Old Topsail Inlet, and sailed northward along the low sand ridges which lock Pamlico and Croatan Sounds. The Indians came, and with great wonder gazed at the ships with wings, and at the noisy guns. They took the English to Roanoke Island, and treated them royally.¹ The English then began their thrifty trading. For a tin pan they received twenty furs, worth about thirty-five dollars, while a copper kettle brought fifty valuable skins. The ships, loaded with furs and woods, returned to England. Queen Elizabeth listened to the stories of the sailors, and named the country “Virginia,” in honor of herself, the virgin queen of England.



Sir Walter Raleigh.

57. Raleigh's First Colony.—In 1585 Raleigh sent out a colony under Ralph Lane to settle Virginia. Lane built a fort on Roanoke Island, and explored the coast and the rivers in the vicinity. Troubles with the Indians soon brought about a scarcity of food, and the colonists returned to England.

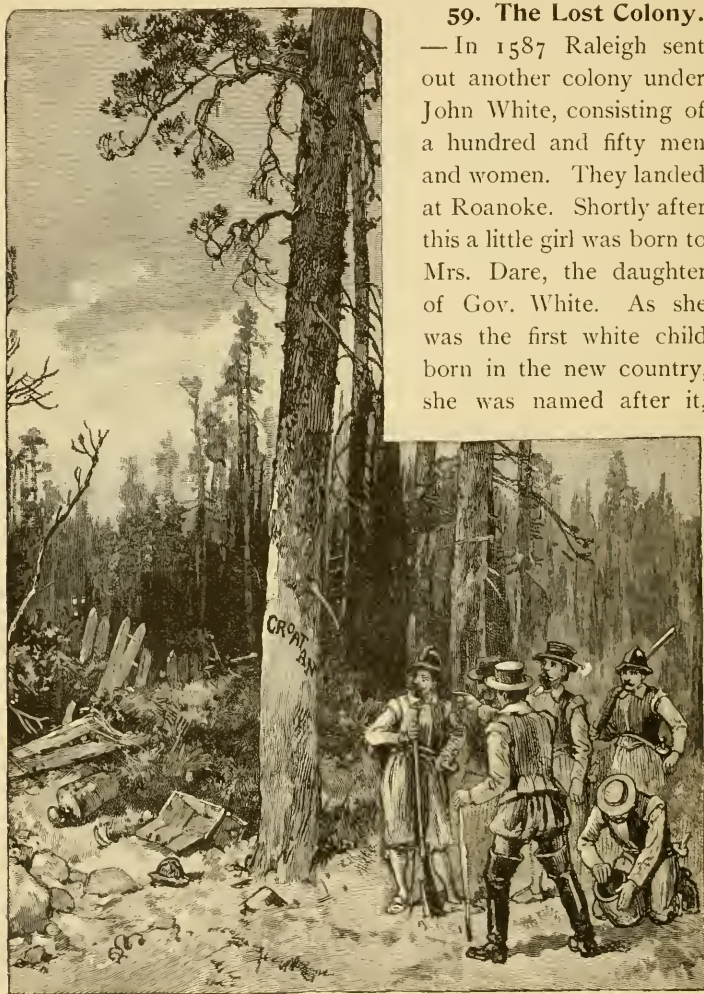
58. The Potato, Corn, Tobacco, and Sassafras.—This trip made the English acquainted with the productions of America, and introduced to their notice two new vegetables,—the potato, and Indian corn or maize. Potatoes were planted on English soil, and soon became a choice food. Tobacco made smoking fashionable, and sassafras was a wonderful thing. It

¹ The house of the Indian chief had five rooms, and the dinner set before the English consisted of venison, fish, melons, fruits, and wine.

made tea, yielded a medicine, and carried a perfume. Englishmen ate American potatoes, smoked American tobacco, drank American tea, and became American in fancy and thought.

59. The Lost Colony.

—In 1587 Raleigh sent out another colony under John White, consisting of a hundred and fifty men and women. They landed at Roanoke. Shortly after this a little girl was born to Mrs. Dare, the daughter of Gov. White. As she was the first white child born in the new country, she was named after it,



Searching for the Lost Colony.

"Virginia." Gov. White went back to England with the ships to obtain supplies. He was not able to reach Roanoke again until 1590, when the colony had disappeared; and the only indication of its whereabouts was the word "Croatan" carved on one of the trees. Raleigh sent several other expeditions to ascertain the fate of his people, without success. Years afterwards it was learned from the Indians, that, with the exception of a few individuals, they had been massacred; and from the few survivors is supposed to have sprung the tribe of gray-eyed Hatteras Indians.

60. Labors of Raleigh not Lost.—Raleigh spent a large fortune in these vain attempts to found an American colony. Yet his labors were not lost. The attention of the people was centered upon Virginia, and new determinations were made to conquer it for civilization. Raleigh blazed the way, and English activity opened the road at once. He will ever rank as one of the greatest of the founders of the American Colonies.

61. Bartholomew Gosnold.—In 1602 another Englishman, Bartholomew Gosnold, in a single ship sailed directly west over the Atlantic, and in about fifty days sighted the shores of Maine. The sailors had theretofore clung with superstitious regard to the longer track, south to the Canaries, thence along the route of Columbus to the continent. The shorter route not only decreased the expense and the dangers of the voyage, but cut down the time from one hundred and twenty days to fifty.¹ Gosnold explored the coast from Cape Elizabeth to Cape Cod. Here he landed, being the first Englishman to set foot on the shores of New England.

Rounding Cape Malabar, he entered Buzzard's Bay. Choosing the most westerly of the islands, he and his company went ashore and began a settlement. The sassafras which had become famous through the Roanoke explorers was eagerly sought. A

¹ The same voyage is now made upon our ocean steamers in less than six days.

brisk trade ensued with the Indians, and the ship was soon loaded with this root.¹ Then the idea of home overpowered the idea of colonization, and the settlers all clamored to return with the ship. The fate of the Southern colonies was too mysterious and too recent for even brave men to risk incurring its repetition. So the island was abandoned. The return trip was made in thirty-five days. The whole voyage consumed less time than had been given before to an outward trip.

62. Martin Pring.—The short trip, the splendid sassafras, and the glowing account of the rivers, islands, and bays, soon led the English to undertake another expedition. Two ships started, with Martin Pring as captain. These ships were loaded with trinkets for the Indians, and were intended for exploration and trade. They reached Penobscot Bay, and then some time was spent in exploring the coast of Maine. Thence they sailed south to the sassafras region at Martha's Vineyard, where the ships were soon loaded for the home voyage. No attempt at settlement was made (1603).

63. George Weymouth.—In 1605 George Weymouth was sent over by the Earl of Southampton. He reached Maine, explored its coast, went up one of the rivers into the forests, and opened a trade with the Indians. Some of these learned English, and went back to England with him.

64. Henry Hudson.—In 1609 the Dutch East India Company sent an English sailor, Henry Hudson, in the ship "Half Moon" to discover a northeast passage to Asia. Encountering fogs and ice north of Norway, Hudson turned westward to search for a northwest passage, which he had heard existed north of Virginia. In August he found himself off Chesapeake Bay. Turning northward, he entered and explored Delaware Bay, and early in September (1609) entered the mouth of the noble river

¹ Of the four things first given to the English by Raleigh's expeditions,—tobacco, potatoes, corn, and sassafras,—the last had the greatest influence in determining the early voyages.

which now bears his name. He spent a month in exploring the Hudson, ascending it to the head of tide water, little dreaming that Champlain was at the same time but a few miles to the north, exploring the beautiful lake whose name recalls him. Hudson was the first Englishman to see the fine scenery of the American Rhine, and in rapture he cried out, "It is as beautiful a country as one can tread upon!" In October he sailed for



The "Half Moon" on the Hudson River.

Holland to report to his Dutch employers, but, touching at Dartmouth, he was detained; the services of himself and of his English seamen being claimed for their liege lord the English King. So he could only forward his report to Holland, while he himself was sent the following year (1610) with an English expedition in quest of a northwest passage. He discovered Hudson Strait and Bay, where he, with his son, was set adrift in an open boat by his mutinous crew, and never heard of more.

CHAPTER VIII.

EXPLORATIONS OF THE FRENCH.

Leading Topics.

Verrazani (1524).
Cartier (1534).
Champlain (1603).
Quebec (1608).
The Lake Region (1618).

La Salle (1669).
Descent of the Mississippi (1682).
La Salle in Texas (1684).
De Tonti's Fort (1686).
Catholic Missions.

65. Verrazani.—In 1524 a French fleet of four vessels, commanded by Verrazani, sailed for America. Losing three of them in a storm, Verrazani pushed directly westward from Madeira with a single ship, the "Dolphin," and discovered the mainland near Wilmington, N.C. He coasted south for a hundred and fifty miles, thence north along the coast of New Jersey, discovering New York harbor and the bay at Newport, R.I.

66. Jacques Cartier.—In 1534 Jacques Cartier sailed for Newfoundland. Going round the island to the northward, he crossed the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Anticosti, and discovered the Bay of Chaleurs. He then returned to France. In 1535 he discovered the St. Lawrence, and explored its course to Hochelaga, a fortified Indian village at the foot of a hill. Cartier called this hill "Mont Royal," and Montreal now stands near its base. In 1541 he landed on the present site of Quebec, where he built a fort which he called Charlesborg. This discovery of the St. Lawrence River gave to France a claim to an immense region of territory, called "New France," a claim which she stubbornly upheld for two hundred years and more.

67. The Cod Fisheries.—Although the efforts of the King and his commanders had apparently failed, the work of private individuals was marvelous. In the first two months of 1542 no less than sixty ships went to fish for cod off the "New Land."

This was kept up in 1543, 1544, and 1545, and about eight ships a day went fishing from Havre, Rouen, Dieppe, and Honfleur. The fishing merchants kept up this communication during the rest of the century, although no permanent settlements were made. They began the first "permanent trade" with the New World.

68. Champlain.— From 1603 to 1635 Samuel de Champlain was the most prominent figure among the French in exploring and settling this region. In 1603 he led out an expedition with orders from the King to bring back a full report of his explorations. He wrote good French, and had a happy faculty of drawing good pictures. This made his maps and journals very valuable. He first explored the Saguenay and the other streams tributary to the St. Lawrence, noting the soil, the forests, and the animal and vegetable productions. Returning to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, he ascertained the nature of the lands all around it. With a load of furs he returned to France, and published an account of his travels.



Samuel de Champlain.

69. De Monts.— In 1604 De Monts founded Port Royal (now Annapolis) in Nova Scotia, the first permanent French settlement in America.

70. Founding of Quebec.— Champlain made a third voyage in 1608. He went up the St. Lawrence, and laid the foundations of the city of Quebec. In 1609 he discovered and named the beautiful lake which bears his name to-day. In 1615 he made the most daring expedition of his career. He ascended the Ottawa, crossed to and discovered Lake Huron, and marched through the country to Lake Ontario, thence into New York, and down to the great Iroquois fortress at Lake Oneida. Not being able to reduce this, he returned to Quebec. Quebec was a

good trading point, but a poor settlement. In 1628 it had no more than fifty inhabitants. Champlain's life was about equally divided between explorations and Indian wars. He died in 1635, and was buried in the city he founded.

71. The Lake Region.—The country to the west of Huron was laid open to the world by fur traders. Before 1618, it is believed, Étienne Brulé discovered the copper regions of Michigan. Several years later Jean Nicolet discovered Lake Michigan. In a frail canoe he reached Green Bay, and made peace with the Winnebagoes. From the fact that he carried pistols, they called him "the man with thunder in his hands." When Champlain died, the exploring spirit ceased for a while, and the western posts were abandoned. The Iroquois secured powder and guns from the Dutch, and began to take revenge on the French. They became a terror to the savages and to all others. Everybody fled from their scalping knives.



Descending the River in a Canoe.

72. Joliet and Marquette.—In 1673 a trader, Joliet, accompanied by Father Marquette, left Mackinaw for Green Bay in frail birch-bark canoes. Going up the Fox River, they reached the portage, the high ground between the head waters of the Fox and Wisconsin Rivers. Carrying their canoes over this,

they launched them in the Wisconsin. Floating down this stream, they soon reached the "Father of Waters."¹ Joliet let the current bear them at its will, and soon passed the great Missouri. Floating on, they passed and named the Ohio, and kept on down the strange stream until they reached the mouth of the Arkansas, where they stopped and smoked a pipe of peace with the friendly Indians.² Here Joliet turned back and entered the Illinois³ River, which he explored to its source. This expedition is remarkable not only for its great length and splendid discoveries, but also for its small equipment and its pigmy vessels. In four months the explorers had paddled their canoes over twenty-five hundred miles.⁴

73. La Salle.—Cavelier La Salle spent a long life in the Lake Region, and was the greatest of all French explorers. He had already explored the region around the Ohio,⁵ and now determined to reach the mouth of the Mississippi. On Lake Ontario a fort was built (1673), and named Frontenac in honor of the governor of Canada. On Lake Erie, near Niagara, he, with his companions, built the first vessel that was ever launched on western waters; and named it the "Griffin." In canoes they

¹ Called in the Jesuit Relations "Grand Rivière" and "Mississippi;" by Marquette, "Conception;" and by Joliet, "Colbert." The Indian word was first, and held its place among men. The Spanish had called it "Espiritu Santo."

² On a map made by Joliet the tribe of Indians at the mouth of the Arkansas River was designated as "Arkansea." This was the Akansa tribe, said by the French to have been the most civilized tribe of Indians, excepting the Natchez, in the region known as the United States.

³ Joliet, in his report, called attention to a great river (Missouri) which emptied into the Mississippi from the west, which he thought was a route to the Red Sea (Gulf of California).

⁴ Joliet made the first map of the Mississippi region which was based upon a knowledge of the facts. It appeared in 1673-74. Marquette's map for years was called first, but this has been disproved.

⁵ La Salle from the south side of Lake Ontario, with a few followers, had penetrated the wilderness to the southward; and in 1669-70 he discovered the Ohio, which he followed to the falls near where Louisville now stands. In 1671 he discovered the Chicago portage.

went over Lake Michigan to its southern end, where they built a fort called Miami. Going up the St. Joseph River to the portage,¹ they crossed over to the head waters of the Kankakee, a tributary of the Illinois, and descended that river to a point near where Peoria now stands. There they built Fort Crevecœur in 1680.

74. Fort Crevecœur.—Here La Salle set to work to build a second vessel, and sent some of his men, with Father Hennepin, on an expedition to the north. Leaving De Tonti in command, he went back alone to Frontenac for equipments. For sixty-five days he walked over a wild country, and braved a series of floods, only to find, after reaching Fort Frontenac, that his supplies were lost. He heard also that misfortune had overtaken De Tonti,—that his men had mutinied and deserted. To help De Tonti, he started for the Illinois Country, only to find it desolate. The Iroquois had visited it with vengeance, and Fort Crevecœur was in ruins. In despair he went on to the mouth of the Illinois, and gazed for the first time upon the Mississippi.

75. Descent of the Mississippi.—Returning to Fort Miami, La Salle learned that De Tonti had escaped. Uniting with him, he set out upon his greatest expedition. In December, 1681, he crossed the Chicago portage, and by sledding and floating reached the Mississippi River, which was covered with cakes of ice. Descending this, he stopped at Chickasaw Bluff, and built a fort, called, after one of his men, Prudhomme. Passing on, he smoked peace pipes with the Akansa tribe and erected crosses with the arms of France in the open squares of the Indian settlements.

¹ The principal portages by which passages were made from the Lakes to the Mississippi were five in number: (1) by Green Bay, Lake Winnebago, and the Fox River to the Wisconsin, thence to the Mississippi (this was the route of Joliet); (2) by the Chicago River to the Illinois, thence to the Mississippi (this was La Salle's second route); (3) by the St. Joseph River to the Kankakee, thence to the Mississippi (this was the route of La Salle); (4) by the St. Joseph River to the Wabash, thence to the Ohio and Mississippi; (5) by the Maumee River from the west end of Lake Erie to the Wabash, thence to the Ohio and Mississippi.

On the 9th of April he reached the mouth of the "Father of Waters," and took possession of the whole country in the name of the King of France, in whose honor he named it "Louisiana" (1682).

76. La Salle's Great Plan.—La Salle then conceived a project to colonize the Illinois Country by way of the Gulf of Mexico. He built Fort St. Louis on the Illinois River, and, leaving De Tonti in command, started for France to secure ships to enter the Mississippi from the Gulf. He laid his scheme of fortifying the mouths of this great river before the King, who again gave him power to proceed. He sailed in 1684. Every lagoon along the Gulf was taken for a mouth of the river, and he thought himself east of it when in fact he was west.

At Matagorda Bay, after losing a vessel, he landed and camped. The spot of ground chosen was unhealthful, and many of his men died. His ships deserted him and sailed away. La Salle moved



La Salle at the Mouth of the Mississippi.

over to the Lavaca River, and built a fort. Matters soon became desperate. He and a few of his companions started to find the Mississippi. On the route La Salle was murdered by his men. His companions reached the Arkansas River (1687),

where they found a fort which had been built by De Tonti, and in which were the men to whom he had given it in charge.

77. De Tonti's Fort in Arkansas.—De Tonti had remained in the Illinois Country until the time arrived for him to meet La Salle at the mouth of the Mississippi. He floated down to the mouth, but, not meeting his commander, left a letter¹ for him with the Indians. He passed up the river again, and built a fort near the mouth of the Arkansas River in 1686, which he called Fort Tonti.² This was the first settlement in the present State of Arkansas, and was located where Arkansas Post now stands.

78. The Catholic Missions.—The Spanish Jesuits followed the Atlantic coast from St. Augustine to the Rappahannock, where they planted a log chapel in 1570. The Franciscans followed them, planting their missions everywhere. French Jesuits planted missions in Nova Scotia and Maine. In 1615 the Franciscans began work in Quebec. In the same year they began a mission among the Wyandottes in Ohio, and another among the Hurons on Thunder Bay. They established missions from New York to Minnesota, and from Minnesota to the mouth of the Mississippi. Their record is a splendid chapter of American history, and reveals an order of men full of devotion, energy, courage, and perseverance. They first revealed the character of the interior of our country as to soil, products, and the life and languages of the natives. They planted the first wheat in Illinois, and the first sugar cane in Louisiana.

¹ It was delivered to Le Moyne d'Iberville several years later.

² La Salle made a grant to Tonti of a certain area of land on the Arkansas River. Tonti established a mission there in 1689, and required the Jesuits to instruct the Indians, and to encourage agriculture by planting wheat. Tonti died at Mobile in 1704.

Principal Voyages of Discovery before 1525.

NAME.	IN SERV- ICE OF	DATE.	PLACE.
1. Columbus (1st voy.) . . .	Sp.	Aug. 3, 1492— Mar. 15, 1493	Several Bahamas, Cuba, and Haiti.
2. Columbus (2d voy.) . . .	Sp.	Sept. 25, 1493— June 11, 1496	Antilles, Jamaica, Cuba, Haiti.
3. John Cabot (1st voy.) . .	Eng.	May–Aug., 1497	C. Breton, Lab.
4. John Cabot (2d voy.) . .	Eng.	May–Oct., 1498	Greenl. to lat. 36°.
5. Da Gama	Port.	July 8, 1497— July 10, 1499	Hindustan, by C. of Good Hope.
6. Columbus (3d voy.) . . .	Sp.	May 30, 1498— Nov. 25, 1500	Trinidad, northern coast of S. Amer.
7. Ojeda } La Cosa } Vespucci (1st voy.) . . }	Sp.	May 16, 1499— June, 1500	Cape St. Roque (Brazil) to Darien.
8. Pinzon } Vespucci ¹ (2d voy.) . }	Sp.	December, 1499— September, 1500	Brazilian coast and northwestward.
9. Lepe		Jan.–June, 1500	C. St. Roque.
10. G. Corte-Real (2 voy.)	Port.	1500–1501	Newfoundland to Delaware Bay.
11. Cabral	Port.	Mar. 9, 1500— July, 1501	C. St. Roque to Hin- dostan.
12. Bastidas } La Cosa }	Sp.	October, 1500— September, 1502	Pearl Coast to Isth- mus of Darien.
13. Nuno Manuel } Vespucci (3d voy.) . . }	Port.	May 14, 1501— Sept. 7, 1502	Brazilian coast.
14. Columbus (4th voy.) . .	Sp.	May 11, 1502— Nov. 7, 1504	Honduras to Gulf of Darien.
15. Coelho } Vespucci (4th voy.) . }	Port.	June 10, 1503— June 18, 1504	C. St. Roque to C. Corrientes.
16. Jaques	Port.	1503	Brazil to Patagonia.
17. La Cosa } Vespucci (5th voy.) . }	Sp.	May–Dec. 1505	Darien.
18. Almeida	Sp.	1506	Ceylon by C. of Good Hope.
19. Pinzon and Solis ²	Sp.	1506	Brazilian coast.
20. Ponce de Leon	Sp.	1513	Florida.
21. Cortes	Sp.	1519	March into Mexico.
22. Magellan	Sp.	Sept. 20, 1519— Sept. 8, 1522	C. Horn to Spice Is. and around globe.
23. Alvarez de Pineda. . .	Sp.	1519	Florida to Mexico.
24. De Ayllon	Sp.	1520–26	Eastern coast U. S.
25. Verrazani	Fr.	1524	Eastern coast U. S.

¹ The first voyage of Vespucci is placed with Ojeda, according to the common acceptation that he sailed with Ojeda, and returned in time to ship with Pinzon in 1499.

² The above chart places the voyage of Pinzon and Solis in 1506, according to the general belief of scholars.

Principal Voyages to the United States between 1525 and 1609.

NAME.	IN SERVICE OF	DATE.	PLACE.
1. De Narvaez	Sp.	1528	Florida.
2. De Vaca	Sp.	1528-36	{ Southwestern part of the United States.
3. Cartier	Fr.	1534-35	St. Lawrence Region.
4. De Soto	Sp.	1539-42	Southern United States.
5. Louis de Velasco	Sp.	1559	Pensacola Bay.
6. Ribault	Fr.	1562	Port Royal.
7. Laudonnière	Fr.	1565	Fort Caroline.
8. Menendez	Sp.	1565	St. Augustine.
9. William Hawkins	Eng.	1565	Florida.
10. Sir Francis Drake	Eng.	1577	California.
11. Sir Humphrey Gilbert	Eng.	1583	{ Newfoundland and Mas- sachusetts.
12. Amidas and Barlow	Eng.	1584	North Carolina.
13. Ralph Lane	Eng.	1585	" "
14. John White	Eng.	1587	" "
15. Bartholomew Gosnold	Eng.	1602	Maine and Massachusetts.
16. Martin Pring	Eng.	1603	Maine.
17. George Weymouth	Eng.	1605	"
18. Champlain	Fr.	1603-05	St. Lawrence Region.
19. De Monts	Fr.	1604	Nova Scotia.
20. London Company	Eng.	1607	Jamestown.
21. Champlain	Fr.	1608-09	{ Lakes Champlain, Hu- ron, and Oneida.
22. Henry Hudson	Eng.	1609	Hudson River.

Explorations of the Interior by the French.

NAME.	DATE.	PLACE.
1. Fur Traders	1618	The Lake Region.
2. Jesuit and Récollet Missionaries	1615-1700	The Mississippi Valley and Lake Region.
3. Joliet and Marquette	1673	Mississippi River.
4. La Salle	1673-1687	Mississippi River to its mouth.
5. De Tonti	1673-1704	Mississippi Valley.

PART III.—ERA OF SETTLEMENT AND COLONIAL DEVELOPMENT (1607-1733).

CHAPTER IX.

THE FIRST ENGLISH SETTLEMENT.

Chief Topics.

Charters (1606).

First English Settlement (1607).

The Struggle for Existence (1607-08).

Second and Third Charters (1609-12).

Great Growth (1609).

Slavery (1619).

The First Legislature (1619).

Schools (1619-22).

79. The Colonial Charters.—King James I. made two cessions in 1606 of the American territory claimed by the English: (1) to the London or South Virginia Company, and (2) to the Plymouth Company. The London Company had for its members nobles, gentlemen, and rich merchants in and around London. The Plymouth Company was made up of similar persons from the west of England. Both companies were under control of a central London council chosen by the King, and called "The Council of Virginia."

King James I. authorized the London Company to settle anywhere between Cape Fear and Long Island, while the Plymouth Company was permitted to choose a site anywhere between Delaware Bay and Nova Scotia.¹

80. Settlement of Jamestown.—The London Company sent out an expedition commanded by Capt. Christopher New-

¹ The London Company had from the 34th to the 38th degree, and the Plymouth Company from the 41st to the 45th. Either could occupy the three intermediate degrees, provided that neither should settle within a hundred miles of the other.

port, consisting of three ships and a hundred and four men.¹ A large part of these were unworthy men, and gave the better element much trouble.



Map showing First English Settlements.

Reaching Chesapeake Bay by way of the West Indies, they named Cape Charles and Cape Henry after the two sons of the King. They named Point Comfort, and discovering the mouth of a river, which they named "James" in honor of the King himself, they sailed up its course about fifty miles to a beautiful peninsula, where they landed on the 22d of May, 1607, and began the historic settlement, Jamestown.²

Edward Wingfield was chosen president of the

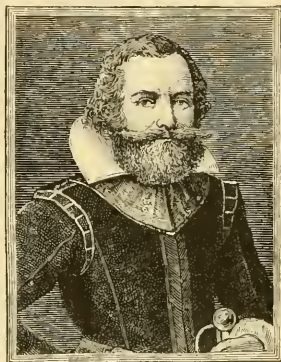
council, and thus became the first governor of Virginia. The colonists set about to erect houses for homes and for worship.³

¹ Of these, forty-eight were gentlemen. Some of the others were laborers, mechanics, carpenters, etc.

² A great historian has said, "This is the most important event recorded in profane history."

³ Capt. Smith thus describes the first church and houses: "When I first went to Virginia, I well remember, we did hang an awning (which is an old sail) to three or four trees, to shadow us from the sun; our walls were rails of wood, our seats unhewed trees, our pulpit a bar of wood nailed to two neighboring trees; this was our church, till we built a homely thing like a barn, set upon crotchets, covered with rafts, sedge and earth, as were also the walls. The best of our houses were of the like curiosity, but the most part far much worse workmanship, that could neither well defend wind nor rain; yet we had daily common prayer morning and evening, every Sunday

81. Jamestown's Struggle for Life.—Shortly after this, Capt. John Smith¹ set out to explore the neighboring country. Up the James he went, and discovered the country ruled by Powhatan. He returned to find the colonists in peril. The August sun had brought an epidemic which carried off one half of them. The rest were sick, and only five men were able to do duty as sentinels. Gosnold died, and Wingfield was removed from office. Capt. Ratcliffe was elected to succeed him, but had neither the character nor courage to rule well. He was removed, and two of the council were left,—Martin and Smith. Martin voted for Smith, and made him president. His good sense and the frosts of winter saved the Colony. Houses were cleaned up, and the fortifications strengthened. He made peace with the Indians, and bought corn of them. Discipline became permanent, and cheerfulness and hope took the place of melancholy.



Capt. John Smith.

82. Capture of Smith by the Indians.—During the winter Smith set out to explore the Chickahominy, and was captured by the Indians. By the movements of his compass he aroused the fears of his captors, and thus saved his life. He was then

two sermons, and every three months the holy communion." The entire band celebrated the feast of the Holy Communion the day after landing.

¹ Although but twenty-eight years of age at this time, Capt. Smith had already passed through a most adventurous career by which he had acquired that self-reliance which, with his indomitable energy and administrative ability, fitted him for the leading part he took in affairs of the Colony. In boyhood he ran away, and became a soldier in Holland. He then traveled over France, Italy, and Egypt, enlisted in the Hungarian army, and was captured by the Turks and sold as a slave. Being beaten by his master, he killed him, and walked through Russia and Poland, Germany and France, back to England.

taken to Powhatan, the Indian chief, who a few days later released him and sent him to Jamestown.¹

83. More Emigrants arrive.—During his seven-weeks' absence, the Colony was reduced by death to thirty-eight. Early in the spring (1608) a hundred and twenty more emigrants arrived with Capt. Newport. Of the new emigrants, thirty-four were gentlemen; the others, gold-hunters, jewelers, engravers, and adventurers. Smith saw new trouble ahead, but did not flinch from the task of forcing these incongruous elements into discipline, industry, and development. He explored and mapped Chesapeake Bay. He was elected president again, and made some regulations which created great opposition. Each man was required to do a certain amount of work each day. After a while the sturdy English sense predominated, and English industry began to hammer out the usual English success. The second summer had been without fever, and prosperity opened on the Colony's second autumn.

84. The Second Charter.²—In May, 1609, the company obtained a new charter with enlarged privileges. It permitted the stockholders of the company to select their own London council. It also authorized that council to select the governor of the Colony. The boundaries of the Colony were extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific. This relinquishment of royal privileges was not demanded by the Virginians, but by the Eng-

¹ The romantic incident that made the Indian princess Pocahontas the heroine of colonial life, and one of the noted characters of American history, is said to have occurred during Smith's captivity. In his *General History*, published in 1624, Smith relates that he was about to be killed by order of Powhatan, when Matoaka, the eldest daughter of the chief, rushed between the uplifted club and the prisoner, and interceded in his behalf so successfully that his life was spared. Smith was told that the name of his deliverer was Pocahontas, the Indians believing that no one could be hurt whose real name was unknown.

² The first charter placed the whole authority in the hands of the King and such as he should appoint. No property rights could be obtained by emigrants before the end of five years. Everything was held in common, and the idle were supported at the expense of the industrious.

lish stockholders. The example, however, took root, and produced excellent fruitage in a few years.

85. Lord Delaware.—Thomas West (Lord Delaware) was chosen governor and captain-general of Virginia. Nine ships, carrying the new commissioners, Gates, Somers, and Newport, with five hundred emigrants, left England (1609). Two of the ships with the commissioners were wrecked on the Bermudas: the other seven, after a journey of peril, reached Jamestown. The old colonists were clamorous, and objected to the new government. Smith relinquished his position, and returned to England.

86. The Days of Famine.—War was declared against the Indians, and before it ended the colonists found themselves without provisions. In six months their number decreased from four hundred and ninety to sixty. They literally starved to death.

The arrival of the wrecked Capt. Gates with his companions was celebrated by the thankful but starving colonists with thanksgiving and prayer. This was the first thanksgiving service in America, and occurred on May 10, 1610; but starvation had eaten into the English vitality, and the whole Colony resolved to abandon the place. They crowded on the ships, fired a farewell shot, but shed no farewell tear. It looked as if the fate of Raleigh's settlements was to be that of Jamestown. Down the James they went to Mulberry Island, where they met Lord Delaware (1610) with a hundred and fifty of the best emigrants ever brought to America. They all turned back to Jamestown, and repaired at once to the Jamestown church to give thanks again. The sermon of Mr. Bucke was tender and eloquent, and was a fitting end to these troublous days.

87. Industries of the Colony.—The manufacture of steel and iron was begun,—the beginning of an impulse that has enriched America,—and new settlements were started at Bermuda Hundred and Henrico City. The latter was built upon a bend called Dutch Gap, which afterwards became famous. Dale

became governor (May, 1611), and began a rigid policy. He executed eight ringleaders who tried to lead the colonists into insubordination. He introduced the system of property rights in land, and gave to each settler three acres. In August (1611) Sir Thomas Gates, who had been sent back to England, arrived, with three hundred settlers and a hundred cows. The Colony now numbered seven hundred. Plantations were begun, and each hundred men subjected to the control of a captain. John Rolfe began in 1611 the systematic culture of tobacco. Flax and hemp were grown everywhere. Tobacco soon became the chief article of trade: it influenced lawmaking, and became a factor in all the subsequent political and religious disturbances. It is to-day one of the chief sources of revenue in the United States.



Pocahontas.

88. Pocahontas.—In 1613 a party of Englishmen captured Pocahontas, the daughter of the Indian chief Powhatan, and carried her to Bermuda Hundred, where she was baptized and taught the Christian faith. She met John Rolfe, and a mutual attachment soon followed. They were married at Jamestown in 1614.¹ This union brought to the colonists the permanent good will of Powhatan and the formidable Chickahominy tribe. These agreed to take the name “Eng-

lishmen,” and to become subjects of the British Crown. This peace stimulated a greater industry. Property began to accumulate, and a famine was no longer feared.

¹ Rolfe and Pocahontas went to England in 1616, where they were handsomely received by the Crown. In 1617, while preparing to return to Virginia, Pocahontas died, leaving an only son, Thomas. From this son have descended some of the greatest and best of Virginians.



Marriage of Pocahontas.

89. The Third Charter.—In 1612 a third charter was granted to the Virginia Company. The London Council was abolished, and the stockholders governed upon their own responsibility. They held public meetings, elected their own officers, and discussed all questions of law and right. This was the beginning of a democratic form of government in America.

90. Slavery.—In August (1619) a Dutch slaver sold to the Colony twenty negro slaves. Although negro slavery had been established in America long before this by the Spaniards, this was the first introduction into English settlements. During this year about twelve hundred settlers of the most reputable character entered the Colony. One hundred “disorderly persons” were sent to be employed as servants. The influence of these upon

the Colony, however, was not pernicious. Rigorous enactments against crime restrained those who were really vicious, and aided those who were simply unfortunate to become good citizens.

91. The First Representative Body.—In 1619 a legislature, composed of two members or burgesses from every plantation or hundred, met at Jamestown to make laws for the new Colony. It was called the “House of Burgesses.” It had been elected by the freeholders of each hundred, and was composed of twenty-two members.¹ This was the first legislative body elected by the people that ever convened in America. It passed two laws of note: (1) every man was required to attend church twice a day on Sunday; (2) each settlement was required to educate the children of the natives. Thus from this first House of Burgesses came the first law ever penned in America, enjoining education upon communities.

92. Colleges and Schools.—About this time a college was opened for both sexes at Henrico. Under an order from the King, nearly £1,500 (\$7,500) had been collected by the bishops of the realm to build the college, and 15,000 acres of land were given for its support. Contributions came from England each year. In 1622 it was destroyed in the Indian massacre. Nor was this all. A free school preparatory to the college was established at Charles City in 1621. This was the first free school in America. It was also destroyed by the Indians.

¹ Between 1617 and 1619 many new villages or hundreds were formed, each one having the regular ministrations of a minister of the Church of England. These ministers united two functions, — preacher and teacher.

CHAPTER X.

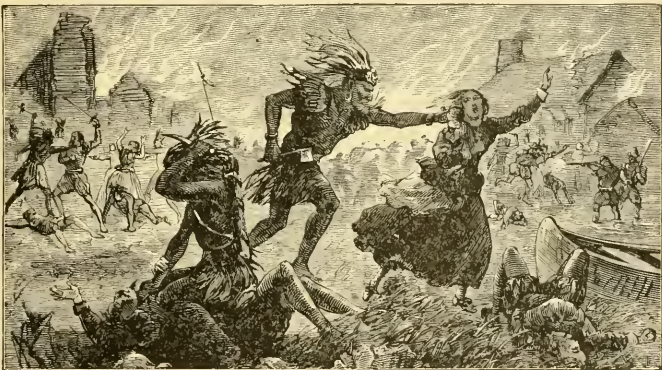
DEVELOPMENT OF THE VIRGINIA COLONY.

Leading Events.

Written Laws (1612).
Indian Massacres (1622-44).
Royal Province (1624).
Counties (1634).

The Cavaliers (1649).
Navigation Act (1660).
Bacon's Rebellion (1676).
The Shenandoah Valley (1732).

93. The Constitution.—In 1612 the London Company granted Virginia a written code of laws modeled after the British Constitution. It provided (1) trial by jury; (2) annual meetings of the Assembly; (3) that no act of the company should bind the Colony without the assent of the Assembly. This charter became the model for the other colonial grants. No other Colony was satisfied with less than had been granted to the Old Dominion.¹



Indian Massacre.

94. The Indian Massacre.—Peace with the Indians had been enjoyed so long that the colonists were lulled into a feeling of security. On the 22d of March, 1622, the Indians fell upon the

¹ This was the name almost universally applied to Virginia.

whites, and killed men, women, and children to the number of three hundred and forty-seven. Every settlement was attacked on the same day, except Jamestown, which escaped. The savages then set fire to the houses and destroyed them, including the college property at Henrico. The plans of the Indians had been maturing for years, and the massacre changed the minds of the English with reference to their treatment. The mild treatment hitherto enjoined was reversed, and the Indians were treated as deadly enemies.

95. A Royal Province.—Too much freedom grieved the King. He did not like the Virginia Assembly or Virginians. He said they “had become a seminary to a seditious Parliament.” He therefore revoked their charter, and made the Colony a royal province (1624). Thus, almost before any other Colony was started, Virginia had begun the solution of the great questions of liberty and representation, and suffered dismemberment rather than abate her claims. While gallantly struggling for political liberty, the colonists marred their record by an act of religious intolerance. All ministers other than those of the Church of England were forced to leave.¹

96. Counties.—In 1634 Virginia was divided into eight counties, governed as in England. The election of sheriffs and bailiffs was reserved to the people. The settlers adopted the county form of government for these reasons: (1) they were used to it in England; (2) it was best suited to their large territory, sparse population, and agricultural life; (3) they believed that the people would be purer, and the government stronger.

97. Second Indian Massacre.—In 1644 the Indians planned a second attack upon the colonists, which resulted in the butchery of between three hundred and five hundred men and women. Despite this, and despite the political and religious

¹ The Baptists and Quakers were persecuted most. McTyeire said, “They marched to prison singing as they went, ‘Broad is the road that leads to death,’ and preached to crowds through the prison bars.”

troubles, the Colony prospered. In 1648 it had a population of 15,000, and the annual yield of tobacco was 1,500,000 pounds.

98. The "Land of the Cavaliers."—For about a century serious trouble had been brewing in England, in both civil and religious matters, between the people and the sovereign. This culminated in civil war, the execution of King Charles I., and the establishment by Oliver Cromwell of the English Commonwealth in 1649. Prior to the downfall of the monarchy, the religious intolerance of the King and his partisans, who were called "Cavaliers," had caused many of their adversaries to fly to America. These adversaries, who were dissenters from the Established English Church, were called "Roundheads," or "Puritans." With the success of the Roundheads under Cromwell, it was the turn of the King's friends to fly; and during the period of the Commonwealth (1649–60) three hundred Cavaliers found a home in Virginia, from which that Colony has been called the "Land of the Cavaliers."

99. Navigation Act.—In 1660 the kingdom was restored in England, and Charles II. crowned King. The Navigation Act, which required the colonists to trade exclusively with England and in English ships, was passed by Parliament in 1660. The Assembly sent Gov. Berkeley to England to protest against it. The King disregarded the protest, and rigidly enforced the law. This so lowered the price of tobacco exported, and so raised the price of English goods imported,—the only goods which could be imported under the law,—as to almost extinguish the great trade of the Colony. The colonists grew impatient, and signs of revolt were manifested. The murmurs brought concessions¹ which pacified the colonists without reconciling them.

¹ Among other concessions was one in answer to a protest sent over by Virginians, to the effect "that taxes ought not to be laid upon proprietors and inhabitants of the Colony, but by the common consent of the General Assembly." On the 10th of April, 1676, the King granted this, but rescinded his grant a few weeks later. The principle, however, was ever after main-

100. Bacon's Rebellion.—The settlers on the frontier demanded protection against the Indians. Murders were frequent, and the whole line of outlying settlements was insecure. The colonists came together in self-defense, and, without authority from the royal governor, raised a company of soldiers (1676), elected Nathaniel Bacon as their leader, and started for the wilderness. Berkeley proclaimed them traitors, and pursued them with a small force. Bacon retorted by denouncing the governor as a traitor and a tyrant. The lower counties rose in revolt, and joined Bacon's standard. He punished the Indians, and then returned with his army to the capital, only to be declared a law-



Ruins of Jamestown.

ful general by the Virginia Assembly. Gov. Berkeley was forced to issue a commission to Bacon, and with this the young general marched to the frontier to continue his fight with the Indians. Berkeley again denounced him as a traitor, and Bacon then turned his warfare against the governor. Marching to Jamestown, he forced the governor to take refuge in the Accomac, east of the bay.

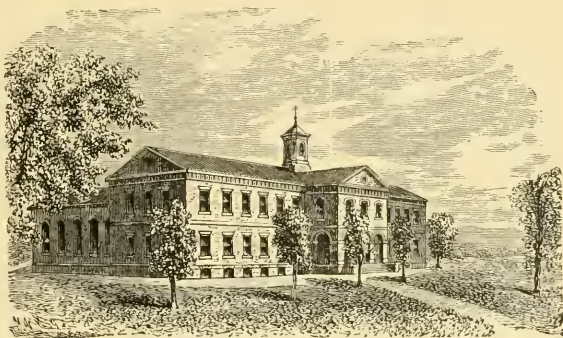
Again Bacon sought the

Indians, but, before he reached them, Berkeley raised an army and marched against him. Bacon turned, only to learn that Berkeley had again crossed the bay. Entering Jamestown with victorious banners, he burned it to the ground. Owners of houses

tained by the colonists, though it was not established until a century afterwards.

set fire to them, declaring that they should never again shelter the tyrant Berkeley. In the midst of his success, Bacon died; and his followers, having no leader, were forced to submit. Berkeley returned, and vindictively punished all who had been connected with Bacon. The jails were filled, property was confiscated, and twenty-three men were executed.

101. Williamsburg.—Jamestown never recovered from the blow given by Bacon. In the beginning of the next century the capital was removed to Williamsburg, and the house that had been occupied by the burgesses was given to the justices of



William and Mary College.

Jamestown, with fifty acres of land for a free school. The principal enterprise, however, was the college established by Rev. James Blair in 1693, called William and Mary College, the second permanent college in the United States.

102. The Vestries of Virginia.—A careful study of the vestries of Virginia will disclose the fact that they were from the first strong advocates of religious liberty, and that from their ranks came the strongest advocates of civil liberty. "Taxation and representation" were synonymous with "support and election of ministers." If they were to pay the minister, they demanded the right to choose him and to discharge him at will.

The defense of these rights brought them into constant contact with governors, bishops, kings, queens, and cabinets. They fought the battles of the Revolution for a hundred and fifty years before the Revolution began.

103. The Shenandoah Valley.—A hundred years after the founding of Jamestown the counties extended to the Blue Ridge, and the population had reached nearly a hundred thousand. The region beyond this great barrier was unknown. In 1716 Gov. Spottswood, with thirty horsemen, crossed the Blue Ridge and the Shenandoah River,¹ and pushed on up to the top of the highest peak of the Alleghanies, where he drank the health of King George. Spottswood organized the Knights of the Golden Horseshoe for the purpose of settling the region beyond the Blue Ridge in the valley of the Shenandoah. Hardy Scotch-Irish, German, and Quaker settlers from Pennsylvania and New Jersey pushed down this valley about 1732, and planted their settlements everywhere. The valley also received the Huguenots, the Catholics from Maryland, the Baptists, Puritans from New England, Lutherans, and Moravians; but the hardy Germans and Scotch-Irish largely predominated. Indian wars forced them to think and act alike, and they soon became a strongly united whole. The first religious organization west of the Blue Ridge was the monthly meeting of the Quakers, in 1738, along the Opequon and on Apple Pie Ridge in Virginia.

¹ Shenandoah signifies "The Daughter of the Stars."

CHAPTER XI.

SETTLEMENT OF NEW ENGLAND.

Leading Events.

Voyage of the "Mayflower" (1620).
Landing at Plymouth (1620).
Massachusetts Bay (1626).
Rhode Island (1636).

Connecticut (1633).
Pequod War (1637).
Maine and New Hampshire (1623-29).
The Printing Press (1638).

104. The Leyden Colonists.—During the reign of King James persecutions for dissent were frequent. The "Separatists,"¹ or those of the Puritans that had thrown off all connection with the Church of England, had several congregations in England. These were broken up by the civil authorities. Fleeing from place to place, they sought refuge in Holland. One congregation under the pastoral care of Mr. Robinson, a learned preacher, arrived at Amsterdam, where they remained a year. The congregation grew rapidly; but the old English memories were ever with them despite their religious differences, and they desired their children to be English, and to maintain English principles. This could not be if their children grew up and intermarried with the Dutch in the country of the Dutch. They therefore resolved to remove to America, and to settle in Virginia within the bounds of one or the other of the two great companies.

105. Voyage of the "Mayflower."—About this time a company of merchants in London proposed to carry the colonists to America for a large share of the products of their labor in

¹ There were originally two classes of Dissenters or Puritans,—the Separatists, or those who renounced all connection with the Church of England; and the Nonconformists, who still called themselves members of that church, but could not conform to its forms of worship. The Pilgrims were Separatists, while the colonists at Massachusetts Bay had been chiefly Nonconformists.

the new Colony. The future offered them greater liberty, and the colonists accepted these hard terms. One hundred and two colonists sailed from Plymouth, England, in the "Mayflower," Sept. 6, 1620. In nine weeks they sighted Cape Cod. During the voyage they drew up and signed a compact to enact just and



Landing of the Pilgrims.

equal laws, and to submit thereto. They elected John Carver governor of the Colony before landing. Going on shore, and finding no inhabitants, and no attractions for a permanent habitation, they sailed around Cape Cod Bay, and entered Plymouth Bay.

106. Settlement at Plymouth.—New Plymouth¹ was begun on Dec. 21. Lots were given to each family, and before the new year began every family had a home. Founding a colony in the dead of winter caused much exposure, and before summer began one half of the adults sickened and died, including the governor. These people, because of their wanderings, have

¹ The rock at which the landing was made has been called "Plymouth Rock."

been called "The Pilgrims." The settlers were surprised one morning to hear the English word "welcome" spoken by Indian lips. They looked up, and beheld a friendly Indian, who told them that he was Samoset,¹ and that they had settled in the territory of Massasoit, the king of the Wampanoags. He returned in a short time, bringing with him the king, who welcomed the English to his country, and made a treaty with them, which was observed for fifty years.



Map showing Early New England Settlements.

107. Government of Plymouth Colony. — The partnership with the merchants was dissolved in 1628 by agreement. After this, each man worked for himself, and a greater immigration followed. Buzzard's Bay was made an outpost, and a trade begun with the Dutch at New Amsterdam. Gov. Bradford received an enlarged patent in 1630, and conveyed it to the freemen of

¹ Squanto, an Indian taken to England by Hunt in 1614, acted as interpreter.

New Plymouth. This charter witnessed the growth of the Colony from a plantation of one town, to that of a province of eight towns along Cape Cod Bay, and Taunton, twenty-five miles inward.

108. Massachusetts Bay Colony.—Salem was settled in 1626. Gov. Endicott, with a large body of emigrants, arrived there in 1628, thus insuring the permanence of the settlement. Charlestown, Cambridge, Watertown, Roxbury, Dorchester, and Boston were settled in succession. These towns united under one charter as the Massachusetts Bay Colony, and the government was transferred from England to Boston. John Endicott was succeeded as governor by John Winthrop in 1630. These people refused to be called Separatists. They were members of the Church of England, of the Nonconformist type. Some of the best English families were to be found in this and the Colony of Plymouth. Each settlement had its town meeting, at which every freeman had the right to vote; but this right was soon abridged, as in Plymouth laws requiring membership in the established church of the settlement, as a basis for voting or office-holding, were passed. Members who still conformed to the old Established Church were forbidden to vote or to hold office, as well as those who had gone a step further in the direction of "soul liberty."



Harvard College.

109. Harvard College.—In 1636 the General Court of Massachusetts Bay ordered that two thousand dollars be set aside to found a seminary at Newtown. Two years later John Harvard

died, and left the school his library and £800 (\$4,000). Its name was then changed to "Harvard College," and the name of the town to "Cambridge." This was the first permanent college in the United States.

110. Settlement of Providence. — Roger Williams, a young minister of Salem, insisted that no man or civil authority had the right to control his religious beliefs. He claimed that in such matters every man was answerable to God alone. Williams insisted also that it was a duty of the settlers to buy their lands of the Indians; that men could not sell what they did not own, and that the whites did not own these lands. His brethren held that the company had the right to sell, and that this second purchase was unnecessary. This "soul liberty" of Williams led the magistrates to banish him from the Colony. Williams and five of his friends traveled three months during the winter, hungry and cold, until at last they reached the land of the Narragansetts. Their chief, Canonibus, received them gladly, and granted them a tract of land. Here they began a settlement (1636), which was named "Providence," with the hope that it "might be a shelter for persons distressed for conscience." Williams will ever be remembered as the first in America to demand religious liberty for mankind.

111. Rhode Island. — William Coddington, John Clarke, and William Aspinwall, leading citizens of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, but opposed to persecution, were exiled, and Rhode Island became their home. They bought the island for a lot of white beads, and established Portsmouth in the northern part in 1638, and Newport in the southern part the next year. In 1643 Warwick was settled by Samuel Groton. In the same year Providence, Portsmouth, and Newport were united under a charter obtained from England by Williams, under the title of "Incorporation of Providence Plantations in the Narragansett Bay in New England." This charter was accepted in 1647, and Warwick was admitted into the Colony. In 1663 John Clarke

obtained another charter, including all the settlements, creating a corporation by the name of "The Governor and Company of the English Colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations in New England in America."

112. The Baptists.—This body of religious people began its separate existence in America with the banishment of Roger Williams. The exiles "for conscience' sake" made a home in Rhode Island, where the first Baptist church was erected about 1638.

113. Connecticut Colonies.—The valley of the Connecticut was reported at an early day to be a rich country. Settlers from Plymouth in 1633 settled at Windsor. Two years afterwards emigrants from Massachusetts Bay founded Hartford, Wethersfield, and Springfield. In 1636 Rev. Thomas Hooker, with one hundred persons, marched through the woods to these settlements. Two Englishmen, Lord Say and Lord Brook, sent a company to found a colony on Long Island Sound, which was called Saybrook. A body of Puritans under Davenport founded New Haven in 1638. No code of laws was recognized save the Bible, and no citizens save members of their particular church. Hartford, Windsor, and Wethersfield joined themselves into one Colony in 1639, under the first written constitution ever formed in America.

114. The Pequod War.—The valley of the Connecticut was inhabited by a strong tribe of Indians. They were friendly at the beginning of the settlements, but in the strife engendered by the fur trade some of them did hostile acts. For this, revenge was taken by burning their wigwams and destroying their canoes and corn. The tribe thought the punishment was too severe, and sought revenge. They tried to engage the help of the Narragansetts of Rhode Island. Roger Williams, forgetting the wicked treatment accorded him by the Puritans, crossed the bay, and at great risk of his life prevented the alliance. The Pequods began the war alone (1637). They put about thirty of the Eng-

lish settlers to death by the tomahawk before a defense could be made. The colonists rallied with vigor, however, and in a single engagement destroyed the tribe. Those who escaped were captured, and sold into slavery. The Pequods were no more.

115. Maine and New Hampshire.—In old Plymouth there resided a man of wealth, Ferdinand de Gorges, who had much to do with the settlement of New England. He asked and obtained, in company with John Mason, a tract of land extending from the Merrimac to the Kennebec, and from the St. Lawrence to the ocean. This was called “Laconia.” They soon divided their possessions, and Mason took that part south of the Piscataqua, which he named “New Hampshire” (1629). All this region, including all of New England perhaps, was first called “Norumbega.” After the division, the country north and east of the Piscataqua was called “Maine.”

Several settlements were formed around the Piscataqua River (1623); but they grew very slowly, and were too far from the towns on the bay to be considered of importance. Maine soon joined itself to Massachusetts.

116. The Printing Press.—The year 1638 will ever be famous for the introduction of the printing press into the United States¹ at Cambridge. An almanac was the first work done, after which the Bible and the Psalms were printed.

¹ The first printing press in America was set up by Catholic priests in Mexico in 1535; the second, at Lima, Peru, in 1586.

CHAPTER XII.

UNITED NEW ENGLAND.

Leading Events.

Union of the Colonies (1643).

King Philip's War (1675-78).

Royal Province (1684).

The Charter Oak (1687).

Salem Witchcraft (1692).

Colleges and Schools (1642).

117. Union of the Colonies.—These Colonies were filling up rapidly with people fleeing from the intolerance of priests and kings. In the region between Plymouth Rock and the Housatonic River twenty-two thousand emigrants had already found homes. The stern Puritans, the milder Episcopalians, the Pilgrims, Baptists, Quakers, and others fled to this region, hoping to enjoy greater freedom, and to make larger wealth. They had begun to build ships, and to start those lines of commerce and manufacture which afterwards gave them eminence, wealth, and political power. Fifty towns were already established, each governed by a town meeting of the freemen. They felt the need of a central government which would unite them for common defense and protection without interfering with the separate nature of each Colony. Finally Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven formed a compact (1643) under the name "The United Colonies of New England."

118. The Quakers.—This body of people, because of their peculiar religious beliefs, met with great persecutions in England, and fled to greater persecutions in Boston. They were caught by the officers of the town, and scrutinized carefully for marks of witchcraft. They were thrown into prison, and then banished. Others came, and a law was passed excluding them from the country. If they came back, they were punished by whipping or by cutting off one ear; for the second offense, the other ear

was taken ; for the third, a hole was bored through the tongue with a red-hot iron.

These laws had no terrors for the gentle Quakers. As the laws grew worse, the Quakers multiplied rather than decreased. The council met again, and made the penalty of their presence death. Martyrs multiplied, and the jails filled up, until the common people revolted at the shedding of Christian blood. The law was repealed. The Quakers had conquered, and religious liberty was forever assured. The blood of the Quakers gave New England liberty of conscience.

119. King Philip's War (1675-76).—Massasoit, the chief of the Wampanoags and the friend of the English, died in 1662. The treaty made at Plymouth forty-one years before had been sacredly kept. He was succeeded by his youngest son, Philip



Attack by Indians.

of Mount Hope. Philip was a brave man and a thoughtful one. He resolved to make an effort to stop the advancing tide of English occupation. He attacked Swanzev, but was forced to fly. Rallying all the Indians east of the Hudson, he kept the

frontier settlements in terror by burnings, massacres, and devastations.

The village of Deerfield was burned to the ground (1675). On the day that Deerfield was burned, Hadley was attacked while the colonists were at church. Everything was in confusion, when Gen. Goffe, the regicide, headed and rallied the colonists, and drove the Indians to the woods. The farms on the frontier were abandoned, and the settlers took refuge in the stronger towns. Philip repaired to the land of the Narragansetts.

120. The Narragansetts defeated.—Canonicus, contrary to his treaty, received Philip. Rhode Island was invaded at once by a thousand colonists under Col. Winslow. The two savage tribes repaired to a cedar swamp near South Kingston. Here the greatest battle of the war was fought (1675). The Indians numbered about three thousand, and believed themselves secure. The colonists attacked them bravely, pushed into the swamp, and set fire to their wigwams. The fires rolled on, and the Indians were forced to the front in order to escape. Here they were met by the colonists with their unerring rifles. A thousand warriors were killed, and hundreds more were captured. The wounded, together with the old men and the women and the babes, died in the fire. There the Narragansetts died,—the whole tribe exterminated in a day. Philip, like a wounded tiger, fought through the fire and shot, and escaped.

121. Death of King Philip.—He joined the Nipmucks, and in the spring renewed the war with vigor. He had nothing to lose, and fought with the energy of desperation. For three hundred miles on the frontier he carried the blazing torch and the murdering tomahawk. Lancaster, Groton, Medfield, and Marlborough were burned to the ground. Weymouth, within twenty miles of Boston, was wrapped in flames. But Philip's forces dwindled each day, and there was none to replace them. His wife and son were captured. Broken in spirit, he went back to his old home, Mount Hope, ready to die. Here he was shot

down by a faithless Indian (August, 1676), and his wars were over. The Indian question was settled in southern New England. There the Indians were extinct, and those beyond the Connecticut sued for peace.

122. A Royal Province.—The charter of Massachusetts was abolished by the King (1684), and the Colony placed under the direct control of Edmund Andros,¹ a royal governor, in 1686. He was arbitrary and rigid, and changed the civil and the religious laws of the Colonies. He exalted the Church of England, and permitted no marriage to be celebrated by a minister from another church.

123. The Charter Oak.—Andros determined to destroy the charter of Connecticut, and went (1687) in person to Hartford with a company of soldiers to force the General Court to produce it. The story goes that the charter was brought in, and placed upon a table before Gov. Treat, who proceeded to show Andros how infamous was his demand. All at once every light went out, and in the confusion Capt. Wadsworth of Hartford took the charter away, and hid it in the hollow of a majestic oak² tree on the grounds of Samuel Wallys. Andros, failing in his endeavor, called for the Connecticut records, wrote "Finis"³ below the last entry, and returned to Boston.⁴

124. Salem Witchcraft.—The belief in witches was common at this time (1692) in all civilized countries, and in some localities in England people had been hung as witches. In Salem, Mass., the belief took possession of nearly all the people, and produced some startling results. Some little girls were afflicted with

¹ Sir Edmund Andros was governor of New York from 1674 to 1682; of New England, from 1686 to 1689; and of Virginia, from 1692 to 1698.

² Ever afterwards called "The Charter Oak." The tree was blown down in 1856.

³ "Finis" means "the end."

⁴ But a short time before this, Charles II. extended the charter of Connecticut so as to include all the territory between Narragansett River and the Pacific Ocean. From this grant of Charles II., Connecticut reserved a large area of land in Ohio, called "The Western Reserve," upon whose proceeds was established her permanent school fund.

a peculiar nervous disorder, and accused an old servant of bewitching them. In accordance with custom, she was whipped until she confessed that she was guilty. In a short time other



A Suspected Witch.

girls took the disorder, and other women were charged, only to be whipped into confessions. Every one who confessed was hanged for being in league with an evil spirit. Nineteen persons were hanged before it was found out that the accusations in many cases were malicious, and the confessions frauds. From that day to this no one has been killed for being a witch.

125. Colleges.—Harvard College was established in 1638, Yale in 1701, and Brown University in 1764.

In 1642 Massachusetts passed a law requiring every town having a population "of fifty households" to forthwith "appoint one within the town to teach all such children as shall resort to him to read and write." The salary was to be paid either by the parents or masters of the children or "in a general way of supply." The condition was that those who sent their children "be not oppressed by payment more than they can have them taught for in other towns." These were local compulsory schools, not the "free or common schools" we enjoy.

126. Praying Indians.—Rev. John Eliot, the “Apostle of the Indians,” translated the whole Bible into the Indian language (1661–63). He labored to convert them to Christianity, and was very successful. He then gathered them into towns, where he taught them how to support themselves by labor. He had about four thousand converts, called “Praying Indians.”

127. New England and Virginia compared.—The religious idea entered into the settlement of all New England.

The Pilgrims settled at Plymouth; the Puritans, at Salem and Boston. Connecticut was settled by emigrants from Massachusetts; Rhode Island was the refuge for the oppressed in religious affairs from all the other Colonies; Maine was originally settled by loyalists in politics, and Church-of-England men in religion; while New Hampshire started with men and religion not in good repute at Boston.

Massachusetts was the second Colony to establish government by the people, being preceded by Virginia alone. The form of government in Massachusetts was by town assemblies; that of Virginia, by county assemblies on county court days. In Massachusetts, freemen were selected according to their church membership. In Virginia they were land-holders or house-holders. In both they were select men.

In Connecticut, freemen were made so by the election of the other freemen. The New Haven people met in a barn, and settled matters “according to God.” Freemen had to be church members. Twelve men were chosen, who selected seven to constitute the church. These “seven pillars” were to form the civil government. Everything was settled by the Scriptures.

In Rhode Island no one could be a freeman who had no land, and it took a long initiation to admit one to full citizenship. It appears that in all the Colonies, Virginia included, some sort of wise selection was deemed necessary to admit one to the full exercise of citizenship. What is worth preserving has in all ages been deemed worthy of guarding.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE DUTCH COLONY OF NEW NETHERLAND.

Leading Events.

New Netherland (1610).

Dutch West India Company (1621).

The Dutch Governors (1624-64).

Indian Lands (1626).

128. The Dutch claimed the Hudson River country by right of discovery through Hudson, and the States General of Holland granted to the Dutch East India Company the exclusive right to trade and settle there. As we have seen, the English Government claimed the services of Hudson and his crew because they were Englishmen, and it afterwards laid claim to the country they discovered for the same reason. Thus two nations derived their chief claim to this region from the same voyage.

129. Settlement on Manhattan Island.—Dutch merchants established a trading station at the mouth of the Hudson River, on the island which the Indians had called “Manhattan” (1614). Another company, called the “New Netherland Company,” was granted the sole right to occupy this territory and



New Amsterdam.

trade there. It sent over a large number of settlers and traders, who erected forts on Manhattan Island, and called the country “New Netherland” (1614-18). The settlement on Manhattan Island took the name “New Amsterdam.”

130. Explorations.— In coasting around they explored the Sound eastward to its extremity, and on to Narragansett Bay and Cape Cod. Christiaensen, a commander of one of the ships, went up the Hudson, and built (1615) a block house just below Albany, which was called “Fort Nassau.”¹ Cornelius May, another captain, explored the coast of New Jersey as far as Delaware Bay. By discovery the Dutch now claimed New Netherland as extending from Cape Henlopen to Cape Cod. The English and French were not inclined to treat this claim with much respect, as their claims were based upon older discoveries.

131. Dutch West India Company.— A new company was organized during 1621, with the exclusive privilege of planting colonies in America. The huts at New Amsterdam passed quietly to the new company, and greater attention was given to the Colony. Thirty families of the Walloons, Dutch Protestant refugees from Flanders, came over in 1623, and made homes on Manhattan Island. Some of these, however, sailed up the South River (the Delaware), and built Fort Nassau, where the present town of Gloucester, N.J., stands. This was the first settlement in West Jersey. They made a treaty with the Iroquois, which that fierce tribe always respected.

132. The Dutch Governors.— The company sent over several governors, who ruled the Colony until it fell into the hands of the English. The following shows their names and terms:—

Cornelius May	1624-25
William Verhulst.....	1625-26
Peter Minuit	1626-33
Wouter van Twiller	1633-38
Sir William Kieft	1638-47
Peter Stuyvesant.....	1647-64

During these forty years the manners and customs of the kindly Dutch were planted firmly upon the soil of New York,

¹ Afterwards washed away by a flood. In 1623 Capt. Joris discovered that the fort was gone, and built another a little higher up the river, which he named “Fort Orange.”

affecting its civilization for good, and giving to our poetry, romance, and song much of their volume and power. This people, with their thrift and trade, their industry and economy, their bravery and honesty, became inseparably interwoven with the glory of America; and their descendants, illustrious in all our wars, have also been foremost in vigor, enterprise, and daring upon the peaceful fields of commerce, literature, and law.

133. Buying Land of the Indians.— During the administration of Minuit, the Island of Manhattan¹ was purchased from the Indians for the equivalent of about twenty-four dollars. There were thirty houses on the island at that time (1626). Brooklyn was begun the same year. The Dutch inaugurated the double system of buying land from the European company



Purchase of Manhattan Island.

that claimed to own it, and afterwards from the Indian occupants. Persecuted themselves for their religious convictions, they were willing to tolerate the belief of others. They treated the Indian as a man having the same rights as themselves, and what they wanted they purchased fairly from the one who had the right to sell. This practice was afterwards adopted by the

¹ The chief part of New York, the largest and richest city in America, is built upon this island, which contains fourteen thousand acres. Minuit paid for it, in scarlet cloth and brass buttons, about one sixth of a cent an acre.

United States,—a policy which, though usually attributed to Penn, was already a fixed policy in America long before Penn's purchase.

134. The Iroquois League.—The whole country from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, and from the Great Lakes to the Savannah River, was ruled by a confederacy of Iroquois Indians called "The Five Nations."¹ These Indians were chiefly in New York, and were soon won by this system of fair dealing established by the Dutch, and became their friends.

The English who conquered New Netherland continued the purchase policy of the Dutch, and retained the friendship of the Indians. These as allies enabled the English to stand in the great struggle for supremacy with the French in after years.

135. The Patroons.—The charter of 1621 required the Dutch West India Company "to advance the peopling of those fruitful and unsettled parts." Less attention was paid to this, however, than to the buying of furs. When this trade threatened to become unprofitable, the company started a plan (1629) to enrich itself through a grand array of princely settlements. Immense tracts of land were offered to such men as would take over not less than fifty settlers to New Netherland within four years. These men were to be called "patroons."

They agreed with each emigrant to pay his passage, to furnish him a farm stocked with everything needed, free from taxes and at a small rental, and to furnish a schoolteacher and a preacher.² The emigrant agreed to cultivate the patroon's land for ten years; to give him the first chance to buy whatever he had to sell; to bring all disputes before his court; to take his grain to the patroon's mill, and pay for the grinding. This planting of the feudal

¹ This confederacy was made up of the following great tribes: the Mohawks, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas. The Tuscaroras of North Carolina afterwards removed to New York, and joined the confederacy.

² This makes it an open question whether general education received its first impetus through the Dutch company, the General Court at Boston, or the House of Burgesses of Virginia.

system of Europe in America by weakening the revenues of the State paved the way for its overthrow within a few years.¹

136. Plymouth's Claim.—The Pilgrims had been sheltered in Holland, and good feeling existed between the Dutch at New Amsterdam and the English at New Plymouth; but, notwithstanding this, the Pilgrims claimed as a part of their grant the territory on which the Dutch had settled. The Dutch, in turn, claimed Connecticut; and Van Twiller took possession, and built Fort Hope (1633) near what is now Hartford. This gave the Dutch a footing, which they held for about twenty years. In return for this, the English crossed over into Long Island, and, despite all objections, planted (1640–65) their settlements in what is now Suffolk County.

137. End of West India Company's Monopoly.—Charges against Gov. Van Twiller induced the Dutch Government to investigate the affairs of the province. The monopoly of the West India Company was broken down (1640); and a right to buy, sell, and cultivate the soil, was opened to every emigrant, denizen, and foreigner. "Whole colonies" went there from New England. Servants who had worked out their contracts in Virginia and Maryland, wealthy farmers, together with peasants, all flocked to the Hudson. In 1643 people from eighteen different countries had settled in New Netherland.

¹ The West India Company stockholders turned themselves into patroons, took plantations larger than some of the American States, surrounded themselves with a princely retinue of servants and laborers, and lived free from all control. The governor himself was not clothed with the powers of these men. One patroon, Kiliaen van Rensselaer, a pearl merchant, had seven hundred thousand acres near Albany.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE FALL OF NEW NETHERLAND.

Leading Events.

Swedish Settlements (1638).	The First Legislature (1683).
End of New Netherland (1664).	The Palatinates (1708).
Oppression of the English.	The Moravians (1742).

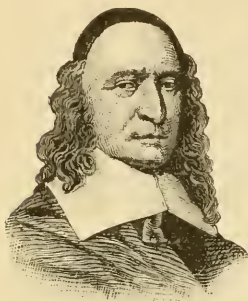
138. Swedish Settlements. — Gustavus Adolphus, the great Swedish king, determined to find a place in America for Swedish exiles from the Old World. Two well-equipped vessels sailed from Gothenburg, and entered the South River of New Netherland in March, 1638. The settlers landed below Mordare Kil,¹ at Paradise Point. They afterwards went higher up, and bought from the five chiefs of the Minquas the west shore of the Delaware from Bombay Hook to the Schuylkill. At the extremities of the country, posts were set up bearing the coat of arms of Sweden and the name of the country, New Sweden. They built a fort near the present site of Wilmington, Del., and named it, in honor of their Queen, "Christiana."

139. European Nations in America. — This was the last of European nationalities represented in the early settlement of America; and it has been said, that, of all who came, "none were more cheerful, intelligent, or virtuous than the Swedes." At this time four foreign powers besides the English had a footing within the present limits of the United States. They were the French, the Spaniards, the Dutch, and the Swedes.

140. Peter Stuyvesant. — The name of Peter Stuyvesant, the greatest of the Dutch governors, serves to mark the extinguishment of two of these powers in North America. He crushed the Swedes, and was in turn crushed by the English.

¹ Murderkil Creek.

Stuyvesant was a soldier of great merit. He had lost a leg in battle, and his silver-tipped wooden limb had earned him the title "Old Silver-leg." He resolved to have order in New Netherland, no matter what it cost. He was not in favor of freedom, or of liberty of conscience, and was a tyrant in many respects. He improved the city, however, forced his own people to obey law, and made other people respect his Colony.¹ Visiting Hartford, he ceded most of Long Island to the English, and fixed by treaty (1650) the western boundary of Connecticut near its present location.



Peter Stuyvesant.

141. End of New Sweden.—Stuyvesant forced the Indians to ratify a peace, and built a fort near the mouth of the Brandywine as a menace to the Swedes. The Swedes overpowered the garrison, and captured this fort (1654). This roused the soldier in Stuyvesant, and he declared war. With six hundred men, he sailed up the Delaware, and captured all the Swedish forts without losing a man (1655). He required the Swedes to take the oath of allegiance to Holland, and put an end to New Sweden.

142. English Conquest of New Netherland.—But the days of the Dutch were about over. The English had never surrendered their claims to New Netherland, although they had for so long permitted the Dutch to control it. It was resolved by Charles II. to assert his authority, and to annex this country to the English Crown. To do this, he granted this whole region to his brother James, who immediately set out with a fleet to take possession of his grant. He appeared before New Amsterdam, and demanded its surrender. Stuyvesant was not accustomed to

¹ Wall Street in New York City, the great money center, marks the line of Stuyvesant's wall or palisade across the island on the north side of the town.

giving up without a fight, and swore that he never would surrender. But the citizens were not as strong-hearted as the governor, and gave him no encouragement to resist. Stuyvesant, finding himself without help, surrendered (1664).



Stuyvesant exhorting the Dutch.

The Duke of York took possession, and the name of the province became "New York."¹ Thus ended the rule of the Dutch. England now controlled everything along the Atlantic between New France and New Spain;—the best slope ever selected for the site of a nation.

143. Oppression by the Duke of York.—New Yorkers changed masters, thinking that they would obtain greater privi-

¹ Named in honor of James, Duke of York. Stuyvesant owned a farm, or "bowery," on the east side of the city, where he lived and died. The street called Bowery was a road leading from the city to his farm.

leges under the English. In this they were mistaken. The Duke of York, who owned the province, did not permit the people to govern themselves by a legislature, but sent out governors, who were entirely responsible to him, and not to the people.

Taxes were levied by the governor at his will, and the people complained that this was in violation of English rights. Gov. Lovelace said, "If there are any more murmurs against the taxes, make them so heavy that the people can do nothing but think how to pay them."

144. The First Legislature.—In 1683 the first legislative body chosen by the people of New York assembled at Albany. The first act passed was one which defined the rights of the people. Every right and privilege of Virginia and Massachusetts was put in this first great law. It was soon ascertained that even a popular assembly may become an engine of oppression and wrong.

Representation was fixed without much regard to population and taxation, so that the "Up Hudson River Country," with less people and wealth, had two or three times as many representatives as the people around New York. This brought the complaint that "to have the name and nothing of the nature of an assembly is but a snare to the greatest part of the people." Thus the equities of representation were gradually unfolded, and forced under the hammer of discussion.

145. The Palatinates.—In 1708 Queen Anne invited the German Protestants from the Palatinate on the Rhine, who had been driven out of their country by religious persecution, to become citizens of her colonies. Thousands of these Palatinates settled in New York. Forty acres of land were promised to each settler after payment of charges for transportation. From the Palatinates have come some of the best and wealthiest families of New York.¹

¹ Embury, Vanderbilt, and Heck are some of the names given by the Palatinates to American civilization.

146. Count Zinzendorf and the Moravians.—The zealous Zinzendorf planted the first Indian Moravian colony in North America (1742) at Shekomeko, in Dutchess County, N.Y. He visited Pennsylvania, preached at Germantown, and established congregations at Bethlehem and Nazareth. In 1749 he obtained an Act of Parliament authorizing the establishment of Moravian missions in North America. These energetic Moravians pushed their work diligently among the Indians everywhere, and contributed very largely to the elevation of the tribes with which they came in contact. They entered a colony without permission, traveled at will, refused to take oaths, and established their churches and schools in all parts of the Colonies and the regions of the West.



Count Zinzendorf.

CHAPTER XV.

NEW JERSEY.

Leading Events.

Settlement of New Jersey (1664).
Royal Province (1702).

The Great Assembly (1707).
The Quakers.

147. New Jersey.—As has been noticed, the Dutch settled New Jersey by building Fort Nassau on the Delaware (1623). They had also crossed over from Manhattan and built a fort at Bergen (1618). The location of the Swedes on the Delaware, having been seized in turn by the Dutch and English, was included in the Crown grant to the Duke of York (1664). In the same year the Duke of York granted to Sir George Carteret and Lord Berkeley all that land southwest of Long Island, to Cape May and the Delaware Bay, under the name of "New Jersey."¹ These proprietors wisely granted a constitution which assured all settlers that their civil and religious rights would be respected.

A settlement was made at Elizabeth (1664), to be followed quickly by others at Middletown and Shrewsbury. Then came the Scotch and English Quakers in great numbers. Philip Carteret, the first governor, obtained the good will of the Indians by buying their right to the soil. New Jersey never had an Indian massacre. The town of Salem was begun in 1675 by a colony of Englishmen under Fenwick.

Berkeley's share soon passed into the hands of William Penn and five others (1676), and a division was made of the grant into East and West Jersey. Carteret held East Jersey. In both

¹ The charter name was *Novum Cæsarea*, or "New Jersey." It was called Jersey from the fact that Carteret had defended the Island of Jersey against the "Long Parliament."

Colonies every freeholder was permitted to vote. Trial by jury was established, and imprisonment for debt abolished. "No man was to be called in question or molested for his conscience, or for worshiping according to his conscience."

The proprietors of West Jersey published their laws, and invited settlements. In 1677 extensive tracts of land were bought by Quakers from Yorkshire and London,¹ and a large number of respectable and wealthy farmers and merchants moved to their new possessions. They settled at Burlington.



Map showing Division of New Jersey into East and West Jersey.

148. A Royal Province.

In 1702 the proprietors of East and West Jersey surrendered their right of government to the Queen, and New Jersey became a royal province. Lord Cornbury was appointed governor, with instructions to have but one Assembly, with alternate meeting-places in Perth Amboy and Burlington. Otherwise the liberal laws of the proprietors were not changed.

149. The Great Assembly of New Jersey.—Lord Cornbury was a cousin of the reigning queen, and was well qualified by birth and attainments to govern well; but he was the only governor of New Jersey that won the hatred of the people.

The first joint Assembly met in 1703, and was dissolved by him in less than a month. The next year it was again dissolved in twenty-one days.

¹ The Scotch, who settled East Jersey, and the Puritans at Shrewsbury and Freehold, were also members of the Quaker Church.

The Great Assembly of 1707 elected Samuel Jennings speaker, and sat from day to day preparing a list of grievances, which was sent to the Queen and to the governor. Cornbury's answer to the address brought a reply from the Assembly in the form of an admirable paper, clearly defining the rights of the people and of the governor. Cornbury dissolved this body. When it met again, he dissolved it again, but he did not conquer it.

Although its greater part was made up of Quakers, the whole body was of old English or Scotch stock, that knew an Englishman's rights. They had acquired large estates under English law, and were not disposed to surrender their right to control them to one who violated all English precedents. So great was their influence, that in 1708 the Queen removed Lord Cornbury, declaring that she would not countenance her nearest relations in oppressing her people. New Jersey continued under royal governors until the Revolution.

150. The Quaker Meetings and their Records.—The monthly meeting records of the Quaker churches established in the wilds of New Jersey two hundred years ago disclose a government and a system of church laws and practices that would do honor to any civilization.¹

¹ John Woolman, a Quaker (born in 1720 in Northampton, Burlington County, N.J.), was one of the most distinguished men in the cause of humanity. He traveled over thousands of miles on foot, and without money, among his people in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina, in the interest of the slaves. His journal is a model of meekness, gentleness, and wisdom. Charles Lamb said of this, "Get the writings of John Woolman by heart." William Ellery Channing said, "It is the sweetest and purest autobiography in the language."

CHAPTER XVI.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Leading Events.

Penn's Grant (1681).
Delaware (1691).
Penn's Treaty (1683).

Quakers and Mennonites (1683).
The Disputed Boundary.
Mason and Dixon's Line.

151. Grant to William Penn.—The Colony of Pennsylvania was granted by Charles II. to William Penn, an English Quaker, in March, 1681. Penn was already interested as a proprietor in the two Colonies of East and West Jersey, and had ascertained the existence of the unoccupied territory across the Delaware. Penn was not only a distinguished Friend or Quaker, but was also the son of a distinguished English admiral. The King owed Admiral Penn a large sum of money (\$80,000), which claim was inherited by William at his father's death. His proposition to the King to exchange the claim for the territory of Pennsylvania was accepted.

152. Penn's Plan of Government.—Penn, as proprietor and governor, drew up a plan of government. Every land-owner, and every person paying any kind of tax to the government, was to be a freeholder; trial by jury was established;

all children of twelve years were required to learn a trade; every believer in one God should have full liberty to



William Penn.

worship as he pleased; the Lord's Day should be observed as a day of rest.

153. Delaware.—Penn had in the mean time bought out the interests of the Duke of York in the remaining territory on the Delaware River. This came to be known as the three lower counties on the Delaware. New Castle was already established, and about five hundred Swedes were scattered over the territory. These counties were annexed to Pennsylvania until 1691, when they were formed into the commonwealth of Delaware, with a separate governor and Assembly.

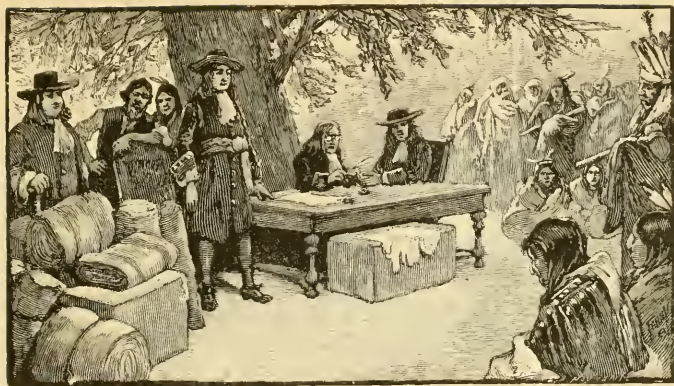
154. Penn's Visit.—Penn reached Pennsylvania in 1682, and devoted his whole time to founding the first settlement at Philadelphia, a city which he had laid out before starting,¹ and in arranging an Assembly for the development of the Colony. When the Assembly met, the three lower counties on the Delaware were joined to Pennsylvania, and the Swedes were made citizens.

Penn followed the established usage, and extinguished the Indian title to the lands by purchase. He went further than this, and attempted to put all trade with them upon a basis that would protect their interests and rights. He granted the Indians the same liberties to improve their lands, and to provide for the sustenance of their families, as were granted to English planters.

155. Treaty with the Indians.—Penn, in contracting for the lands of the Indians, called them together at Shakamaxon,² near Philadelphia, where, under a noble elm, he made with them a lasting friendship. Poetry and art have vied with each other in their attempts to describe this meeting as it deserved; but they have not equaled the simple word-picture given by Penn: "When the purchase was agreed, great promises passed between

¹ The plan was carried out exactly, and its worth is attested by the fact that the original streets have needed little straightening or widening in two hundred years. The settlements of the Swedes at the mouth of the Schuylkill had all disappeared.

² This was "the only treaty never sworn to and never broken."



Penn's Treaty.

us of kindness and good neighborhood, and that the Indians and English must live in love as long as the sun gave light."

156. Welsh Quakers and Mennonites.—A body of Welsh Quakers bought lands north of Philadelphia, and opened up a settlement. A colony of Germans from Crefeld came in 1683. They were Mennonites, and the advance guard of that immense German population which soon turned its face to Pennsylvania.¹

157. Growth.—Philadelphia grew very rapidly. The first settlers, while waiting for their dwellings, lived in caves dug into the ground. Twenty-three ships came during the fall.

In the third year Philadelphia had three hundred and fifty-seven houses, some of them three stories high. Manufactures sprang up. Penn said in 1684, "I have led the greatest colony into America that ever any man did upon a private credit." His city, Philadelphia, was the leading city in early colonial life. The first Congress met there, the Declaration of Independence was adopted in one of its houses, and the Constitution of the

¹ Pastorius came in 1683, and began the settlement of Germantown. In 1685 he sent to the monthly meeting of the Friends a written protest against buying or selling slaves. This was the first public act of this kind, and has been celebrated by Whittier in his poem *The Pennsylvania Pilgrim*.

United States was framed within its bounds. The Quaker City was the queen city; and with the country around it was the prolific mother of colonies in the Valley of Virginia, in North Carolina, beyond the Alleghanies, and far to the west.

158. The Disputed Boundary.— Charles II., in his deed to Penn, made the southern boundary a circle drawn twelve miles from New Castle northward and westward to the 40th parallel, thence westward to its western limit. Everybody supposed that the 40th parallel would intercept the segment of the circle twelve miles from New Castle, and the northern boundary of Delaware. A glance at any map will show that the 40th parallel does not touch the segment, but lies far to the north of it. Penn had laid out his counties, and had granted his lands, on the supposition that the most western part of the circle was the beginning of his south line. Lord Baltimore, the proprietor of Maryland, disputed this, and claimed northward to the 40th parallel.

159. Mason and Dixon's Line.— Penn, seeing that his interests were in danger, returned to England (1684). He succeeded in obtaining all that he claimed as to the present State of Delaware, but could secure no settlement of the southern line. The heirs of Penn and Baltimore (1760) agreed that the line should begin on the circle at a point on that parallel which was fifteen miles due south of Philadelphia. The survey of this line began in 1763, and after four years it had been surveyed two hundred and forty-four miles west of the Delaware. The surveyors were two eminent men from London,— Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon. The line became famous in three ways: first, as a settlement of the boundary question between Pennsylvania and Maryland after eighty years of controversy; second, it settled the dispute between Virginia and Pennsylvania,¹ almost

¹ Baltimore's charter was an infringement upon that of Virginia: so was Penn's. The second charter of Virginia (1609) placed the northern boundary two hundred miles north of Old Point Comfort. Baltimore's line extended west to the meridian which ran through the head waters of the Potomac. Mason and Dixon found this meridian, and pushed on to find Pennsylvania's

as famous as the dispute with Maryland; third, it came to be the line of division between the free and slave States.

160. Penn's Difficulties.—Self-government was so new to the citizens, that much trouble ensued. The quarrels between members of the council and the Assembly and others stopped migration and the sale of lands. Penn also lost his rents. The Colony for which he worked faithfully, and which had profited so largely by his exertions, forgot its benefactor and its promises. The agreed rents were not paid. He revisited the country, and spent two years in the settlement of these troubles. His outlay upon this province threw him into debt, for which he was arrested and imprisoned.¹

161. New Albion (1632).—Sir Edmund Plowden asked King Charles I. to grant him and certain other gentlemen Long Island, and thirty miles square from the adjoining coast, to be formed into a county Palatine with the name "Syon." The King not only granted the request, but extended the boundaries. All of what is now New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, together with Long Island, was included under the name "New Albion," and Long Island took the name "Isle Plowden." Sir Edmund visited his earldom, but found the Swedes in possession on the Delaware. As he was unable to oust them, New Albion was never settled by its proprietor.

west line. The Indians stopped them before they reached it. Virginia finally ceded her claim to Pennsylvania, and in 1784 the line was finished to the southwest corner of Pennsylvania on the 5th meridian west from the Delaware River. Both States, Virginia and Pennsylvania, had their respective officers in each of the southwestern counties of Pennsylvania for many years. Titles were worthless, and riots of frequent occurrence. The cession quieted affairs.

¹ The influence of Penn with James II. was very great. He used that influence to help mankind. He succeeded in opening the dungeon doors of over twelve hundred imprisoned Quakers. When the King fled, Penn was accused of a treasonable correspondence with him. His charter was annulled, but was restored after a long and expensive suit. He who had lived for others was forgotten by them in the evening of his life.

CHAPTER XVII.

MARYLAND.

Leading Events.

Settlement of Maryland (1634).
Clayborne's Rebellion (1644).

Toleration Act (1649).
Customs of the People.

162. The First Proprietary Government.—In 1629 George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, obtained from Charles I. a grant for the lands north of the Potomac. The Colony estab-



George Calvert.

lished under this charter was remarkable in two respects: first, it was the first proprietary government in America; second, it was the first to proclaim and to practice religious toleration.

163. The Settlement.—

George Calvert died before the patent issued, leaving his work to his son Cecil, the second Lord Baltimore. In 1634 Cecil Calvert sent his brothers Leonard and George, with about three hundred people, to found

the Colony.¹ In February the "Ark" and "Dove" arrived at the Island St. Clement. After exploring the country, it was decided to plant the settlement on the stream St. Marys. At the place selected there was an Indian town, which was purchased at

¹ The name "Maryland" was chosen by the King in honor of the Queen, Henrietta Maria.

once,¹ and called "St. Marys" (1634). The Indians taught the settlers the mysteries of woodcraft, how to hunt deer, and how to make cornbread or "corn dodger." The colonists planted



Landing of Calvert.

corn the first year, and sent a cargo to England in the fall to exchange for other goods. The first year was one of thrift, and augured the future success of the enterprise.

164. Jesuit Mission.—Several Jesuit priests came over with Baltimore, and established the only Catholic mission ever set up in the English colonies in America. They labored to convert the Indians.²

165. Troubles with Clayborne.—Kent Island was claimed by Virginia, and granted (1632) to William Clayborne. He tried

¹ Calvert purchased thirty miles square for axes, hatchets, and cloth, and agreed that the Indians should hold one half of the town until the end of harvest. Thus the first town in Maryland was made up of Indians and whites living upon terms of friendship.

² It is claimed by some that a printing press was set up by the Jesuit Fathers at St. Marys in 1634. If so, it was the first one in the British colonies.

to take possession of it (1635), but was driven away by the citizens of Maryland. A second time he attempted (1644) to obtain his possessions, but without success. In 1651 he was more successful. The civil war in England had overthrown the King. Opposition to the Catholic religion was at its highest point. Cromwell resolved to humble Maryland for two reasons: first, the Baltimores were loyal to the King; second, they were devoted Catholics. Clayborne was sent over as a commissioner to enforce obedience to the laws of Parliament. He removed Gov. Stone from office, and created an independent province. When Charles II. was crowned King, William Clayborne, "the evil genius of the province," disappeared from its history, never to trouble it again.

166. A Pure Democracy.—The second Assembly that met (1638) was a pure democracy. Every freeman was cited to attend, and the governor sat as speaker. It was provided, that, if any freeman should be overlooked in the notice, he could claim his place at the meeting. One man, John Robinson, a carpenter, claimed a place, and was admitted. The third Assembly was made up after this fashion: every freeman might vote for a representative to speak for him, or, if he chose, could go to the Assembly himself. The body was made up of representatives and freemen.

167. Act of Toleration.—Although all faiths had been equally protected from the beginning, the Assembly¹ passed (1649) what has since been called the "Great Act of Toleration," by which liberty of conscience was guaranteed by law.

168. The Third Lord Baltimore.—Cecil Calvert died, and Charles Calvert became governor (1661). Charles had a struggle almost as noted as that of his father with Clayborne. This was the dispute with William Penn over the boundary between Maryland and Pennsylvania.

¹ Some New England writers assert that the majority of this Assembly were Protestants. This is an error. There is no doubt that the majority were Catholics.

169. A Royal Province.—In 1692 Maryland became a royal province. The Church of England was established by law. Toleration was abolished, and tyranny sat in the chair of state. In 1715 Queen Anne restored Lord Baltimore to his rights, and the Calverts retained their authority until the Revolution.

170. Customs of the People.—In 1648 it was held that a young man, having finished his apprenticeship, was entitled by the custom of the country to one cap or hat, one new cloth suit, one shirt, one pair of shoes and stockings, one ax, one broad hoe, one narrow hoe, and three barrels of corn. Five hundred pounds of tobacco were sometimes given as an equivalent of these articles. Indians called Marylanders “buckskins,” because they wore clothing made of that material. The “leather stocking” was as typical of the Marylander as the silk stocking was of the Virginian.

171. Growth.—The Colony, despite its troubles, grew rapidly in wealth and population. It adopted the county form of government, as had Virginia. The chief industry was agriculture.¹ Abundance marked the plantation life, and shiftlessness was almost unknown. The little amenities of life marked the whole people, and the vices of towns were absent, the court records being remarkable for the almost entire absence of crimes of violence.

¹ In 1715 the two provinces Maryland and Virginia gave the mother country a greater amount and value of products than the other ten Colonies combined. The tobacco of Maryland alone was thirty thousand hogsheads, and required sixteen hundred seamen to transport it.

CHAPTER XVIII.

NORTH CAROLINA.¹

Leading Events.

Settlement (1653).

The Government (1663).

"The Grand Model" (1670).

Freedom of Conscience (1703).

Indian Troubles (1711).

Scotch-Irish Migration (1752).

172. Early Settlements.—The religious persecutions of Virginia led many Quakers and Baptists to get beyond the line of Virginia's authority. In this way the region around Albemarle Sound was settled. Roger Green, a clergyman, led a large colony in 1653 to the Chowan and Roanoke Rivers. The Quaker George Durant also made a permanent settlement in Perquimans County, at Durant's Neck, in 1662.

173. The Proprietary Government (1663).—The settlers, fleeing from the tyranny of Berkeley,² sent glowing accounts to England of the fair country around Albemarle Sound. Charles II. granted to eight gentlemen as "lords proprietors" all the territory south of Virginia to Florida. These proprietors called the country "Carolina,"³ in honor of the King, and granted important privileges to all who should go there to settle.

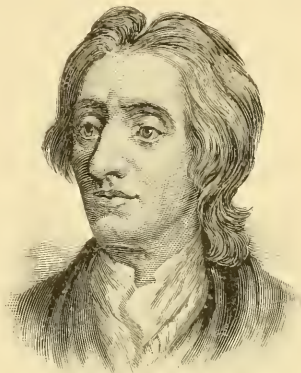
174. Navigation Act and "The Grand Model."—The proprietors tried in two ways to change the simple and free government set up by the colonists: (1) The old Navigation Act passed by Cromwell to break down Dutch commerce was

¹ Frequently called the "Old North State."

² Berkeley tried to extend his jurisdiction over these people, but failed. Early Carolinians looked upon Berkeley as the greatest of tyrants. Strange to say, Berkeley, after thanking God that Virginia had no free schools, subscribed liberally to make one free.

³ This name had been applied to this region before, in honor of King Charles IX. of France.

revived to break down the free commerce of the Colonies. The tobacco, corn, and lumber of Carolina must be carried on English ships, and sold to English buyers. (2) They sent over a form of government called "The Grand Model." It was prepared by two great men,¹ but was in no sense fitted for America. It provided for a number of titles and dignities, and was loaded down with forms and fashions. Some one has said, "It was as unsuited to the Carolina wilderness as St. Paul's Cathedral in London was for a meeting-house for the Quakers of Pasquotank."



John Locke.

To both demands the Carolinians refused obedience. They saw (1) that the Navigation Act would end their commercial prosperity by limiting the buyers; and (2) that the "Fundamental Constitutions, or Grand Model," would destroy their home rule. For these reasons they refused to obey, and, from being at first unruly, soon came to be known as "fearing neither God nor man."

175. Imprisonment and Election of a Governor.—The governor issued strict orders for the arrest of any one violating the Navigation Act, which led to the arrest of certain settlers who proposed to sell their goods to whom they pleased, together with a New England skipper who was there to buy for the purpose of selling again in Virginia, Maryland, or Massachusetts. These arrests made the people angry, and they in turn arrested the governor (1677) and threw him into prison. They then elected a governor from their own number, who held the office for several years. This was the most daring act of colonial days.

¹ John Locke and the Earl of Shaftesbury.

176. The "Grand Model" abolished.—The brave resistance of the people had its effect. The proprietors withdrew the "Grand Model" (1693), and permitted the people to be governed under the charter.

177. Carolinians stand for Freedom of Conscience.—The next step of the proprietors was to pass a law (1703) declaring that the Church of England should be the established church, and that the ministers should be supported by a tax. This created another storm. The Colony was largely made up of Baptists, Presbyterians, and Quakers. These said, "We are already paying for our own preachers. We will not be taxed to support a church that drove us from England with stripes, and that has not changed its tone in America." The good Queen Anne annulled the law as unjust.



Indian Fight at New Berne.

178. The Indians.—In 1696 a fever destroyed nearly all the Indians around Pamlico Sound. The white settlements then spread southward. The fierce Tuscaroras determined to make an effort to destroy them all. On the night of Sept. 22, 1711,

they butchered over two hundred whites. With a force of sixteen hundred warriors, they continued the tomahawking for three days. A Swiss colony¹ of six hundred persons, planted by Baron Graffenreid at the junction of the Neuse and Trent Rivers, bore the brunt of this attack. The militia of South Carolina, aided by a body of Yemassee Indians, all commanded by Col. John Barnwell, attacked the Tuscaroras in a fort at New Berne, and killed several hundred of them. A treaty was made, only to be broken in a short time. Then Col. James Moore, in a bloody battle at "Nahucke," now Snow Hill, routed the savages (1713) with a loss of over eight hundred of their braves. This disheartened the tribe, and it moved to New York, to become the sixth tribe in the famous "Six Nations of the North."

179. End of the Proprietary Government.—The long struggle of the people against bad governors, and bad regulations on the part of the proprietors, led them at last to petition the King and Parliament to purchase the proprietary rights. Accordingly in 1729 the Crown bought the interest of the proprietors in Carolina. This Colony was formally divided at this time into two distinct royal provinces, called North and South Carolina, though these had really been separate for years.

180. The Scotch Migration.—The battle of Culloden, in 1746, started the conquered Scotch to America. They landed in large numbers at Wilmington, and formed settlements along the Cape Fear River. Cross Creek, or Fayetteville, was one of their principal strongholds. They were brave, frugal, and industrious, and made splendid citizens.

181. Scotch-Irish Migration.—In 1752 North Carolina had a population of fifty thousand people. The central and western part of the State began to fill up with a people second to none

¹ This colony was called New Berne. From these settlers have come some of the best citizens of the country. The charge that these were the origin of "The Poor White Trash" is without foundation. This county has been called "The Athens of North Carolina."

in character, courage, and prudence. This was the people called in history the "Scotch-Irish." This emigration set southward down the valley of Virginia into North Carolina,¹ where it met other lines of the same people pushing up the Santee, the Wateree, and other rivers from the Atlantic coast of South Carolina. The gentle Moravians pushed still farther west, and founded Salem, N.C. The Huguenots, with their thrift, good manners, and education, settled on the Pamlico, the Neuse, and the Trent. From such a land came in due time (1) the first armed resistance to the Stamp Act, (2) the first blood of the Revolution at Alamance, (3) the first declaration of independence at Mecklenburg.

¹ Bancroft says, "Are there any who doubt man's capacity for self-government, let them study the history of North Carolina. Its inhabitants were restless and turbulent in their imperfect submission to a government imposed from abroad; the administration of the colony was firm, humane, and tranquil when they were left to take care of themselves. Any government but one of their own institution was oppressive. North Carolina was settled by the freest of the free."

CHAPTER XIX.

SOUTH CAROLINA.¹

Leading Events. .

Settlement (1670).
Huguenot Migration.

The Slave Insurrection (1738).
Libraries.

182. Charleston founded.— In 1670 a body of emigrants from England, sent out by the proprietors, landed in the southern part of Carolina, at or near Beaufort. Remaining here but a short time, they moved first, to the Ashley River and founded old Charleston, and second (1680), across to Oyster Point, on the peninsula between the Ashley and Cooper Rivers, and founded Charleston.

183. The Huguenots.— The Catholics in France, with King Louis XIV., persecuted with relentless vigor the Protestants of France. These Protestants were called Huguenots, and represented all classes of French people, from the nobility to the peasants. America invited them to its shores, and they came in large numbers to find homes in New York, Virginia, and the Carolinas. Large numbers of them landed at Charleston, and scattered over the region adjoining. No better immigrants ever came to America. They were not only physically strong, but were also well developed in head and heart. Their descendants have rivaled the sons and daughters of Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Germans in nobility of character and enduring worth. Henry Laurens and Francis Marion claimed their descent from this Huguenot stock.

184. Rice, Indigo, and Cotton.— The culture of rice began upon the plantations near Charleston about 1693. The Colony soon took first rank in the exportation of this grain, and always

¹ Called the Carteret Colony in honor of Sir George Carteret.

held it. In 1741 indigo was planted, and before many years the exportation reached a million pounds a year; but cotton was found to be more profitable, and the culture of indigo was abandoned. The trade in rice, indigo, and cotton, made Charleston the metropolis of the South during the eighteenth century. Josiah Quincy said of it, "In almost everything it far surpasses all I ever saw, or ever expect to see, in America."



Rice Field near Charleston.

185. The Government.— During the days of the proprietors, Carteret Colony, or South Carolina, had its own governor, council, and Assembly. From 1729 to the Revolution the province was ruled by a number of royal governors, who were permitted to exercise no functions not in accord with local self-government.¹

186. The French and Indians.— The French were beginning to make their presence felt among the colonists. Their

¹ One governor, Arthur Middleton, undertook to teach the people a lesson. The Assembly did not suit him, and he dissolved it. The people reelected the whole body. Middleton dissolved it again and again, until he had dissolved it six times, only to find that the people had reelected it as often as he had dissolved it. The people triumphed, and Gov. Middleton left them to their own legislative bodies.

forts extended from Canada to Louisiana, and their agents were ever on the alert to win the Indians to their cause, and lead them against the English colonies. The Carolinas were open to attacks from the Creeks and Cherokees. Sir Alexander Cumming was sent by the English Government to make a treaty with the Cherokees on the head waters of the Savannah. He succeeded in 1730 in leading a deputation of their chiefs with him to England. One of them, the great Oconostota, was an Indian of wonderful eloquence and a high order of intellectual power. The chiefs were impressed by the great display of English power, and abstained for a while from French alliances.



French Settlers in Carolina.

187. The Slave Insurrection. — Conflicts between the Carolinians and the Spaniards were frequent. Gov. Moore led an expedition against St. Augustine, and failed (1702). Three years later he pushed through the forest to St. Marks, which he captured. Pushing on, he captured five other towns, and planted the English flag in triumph on the Gulf of Mexico. In 1706 a Spanish fleet attempted to take Charleston, and failed. In 1715 Gov. Charles Craven conquered the Yemassee at Colleton, and drove them beyond the Salkehatchie, where they united with the Spaniards.

For years after this the Spaniards incited the slaves of the Carolinians to run away and take refuge in Florida. Bands of Yemassee lurked in the swamps to plunder plantations on the frontier. At length the English under Col. Palmer rose in arms (1731), entered the Spanish territory, and destroyed everything up to the gate of St. Augustine. The boundary line was not known ;

but Fort King George,¹ on the Altamaha, was erected, and the Spaniards notified that they must keep to the west of the river. The Spaniards then tampered with the slaves, and made them dangerous malcontents. In 1738, while the colonists were at church on Stono River, the negroes started an insurrection, and began plundering, burning, and murdering. The male members of the congregation left the women in church, and hastened after the rioters.² They found them drinking and dancing around a house they had just robbed and set on fire. The leader was shot, and the others captured.

188. Condition of the Colony.—From a calm survey of the situation, with their governors, their slaves, the French, the Spaniards, and the Indians, it is doubtful whether any Colony in America was ever faced and surrounded by so many and so frequent dangers as the little Colony of South Carolina. Notwithstanding this, it prospered. It grew in wealth very rapidly, and produced what was far better, a race of brave men clothed with gentle manners, and educated in head and heart. The first two acts of the first Legislature in South Carolina show the interest these people took in morality: (1) the observance of the Lord's Day was enjoined; (2) idleness, drunkenness, and swearing were prohibited.

189. Libraries.—A law was passed in 1700 "for securing the provincial library of Charleston," and this was soon followed by the establishment of others in each of the parishes. The books were to be circulated among the inhabitants of each district.

¹ Fort King George on the Altamaha must not be confounded with Fort Prince George on the Savannah above Augusta, nor with Fort St. George at the mouth of the St. Johns in Florida. Fort King George was destroyed by the Spaniards; Fort Prince George, by Oconostota.

² By a law of the Colony, all people were required to go armed to church. The plantation where the negroes had gathered has been called "Battlefield" ever since. The church was at Wiltown.

CHAPTER XX.

GEORGIA.

Leading Events.

Settlement (1733).

Italians, Salzburgers, and Moravians
(1734-40).

The Spanish War (1742).

Rum and Slavery (1749).

Rise of Methodism (1736).

The Hebrews (1733).

The Highlanders (1735).

190. Early Explorers.—The last of the Colonies to be settled was Georgia. Ribault had previously explored its coasts, had named its rivers after those of France, and had built a fort upon its soil. Laudonnière had visited this fort, to find it deserted. Before this, Hernando de Soto had traversed the State, but had made no settlement. Lured by the reports of De Soto, three hundred Spanish soldiers with mining tools pushed beyond the valley of the Coosa, and spent the summer of 1560 in northern Georgia. The Spanish governor of Florida afterwards sent Juan Paedo to build a fort in Cherokee, Ga. The Spaniards continued these mining operations there as late as 1690. Thus for more than a century the quest for gold went on in north Georgia among the valleys and mountains of the Cherokees.

191. The English Grant.—All of Georgia was included in the grant of the lords proprietors of Carolina. When they surrendered Carolina to the Crown, they included Georgia. This, in 1732, was granted to trustees for establishing the Colony of Georgia. The leading spirit in this movement was James Edward Oglethorpe, a gentleman of unblemished character, "brave, generous, and humane." As a member of Parliament, it was his



James Edward Oglethorpe.

duty to visit prisons, and at that time the English law permitted the imprisonment of men who were honestly unable to pay their debts. The glory of America is the entire abolition of such laws. The strong benevolence of Oglethorpe's soul led him to the idea that these unfortunate though honest men, respectable in birth, and guilty of no crime, should be liberated from their vile thrall-dom, and made the excellent builders of a new colony on the American shores. His scheme embraced no felon nor any dishonest man. He soon enlarged his scheme to include the honest poor out of prison and the oppressed Protestants of Europe. Relief of human distress was the great corner stone upon which the Colony Georgia was built.

192. Foundation of Savannah.—Gen. Oglethorpe, at his own expense, conducted the first expedition. After stopping at Charleston a short time, the colonists proceeded to the mouth of the Savannah River, thence up its course to Yamacraw Bluff, where they landed (Jan. 30, 1733), and began the city of Savannah. Oglethorpe visited the chief of the Yamacraws, named Tomo-chi-chi, and purchased the lands. He made a treaty with him, which made him the lasting friend of the English. He also called a council of the chiefs who lived in the territory of his charter, and purchased their lands at a fair value. It is said that no early Colony ever received so many acts of kindness from the Indians as this Southern Colony.

193. Peculiarities of the Colony.—The peculiarity of this Colony was that no one of its promoters entertained any idea of personal gain from it. Thus was the "Empire State of the South" launched into existence. Subscriptions were started, and Englishmen gave liberally. Parliament gave £10,000 (\$50,000). Each settler was looked upon as a soldier and planter, and was furnished with arms and tools. The town was a garrison, and the land for tillage was laid off near it. Fifty acres were granted to each planter. Whisky was forbidden, as was slavery. All religions were tolerated except the Catholic. In the settlement

of every other Colony there were no restrictions as to who should enter. In Georgia, however, each applicant was required to prove himself worthy of the rights of citizenship.

194. The Italians, Salzburgers, and Moravians.—Many Italians from Piedmont came to Georgia to help in the silk industry. The Protestant Salzburgers¹ came (1734) and settled Effingham County. Large bodies of Moravians followed. Up to 1740 about twelve hundred of these German Protestants had arrived and settled New Ebenezer, Bethany, Frederica, and Goshen. They were noted for industry, sobriety, and thrift.

195. The Spanish War.—A Spanish fleet of fifty-one sail, with five thousand troops, attacked St. Simon in 1742. Oglethorpe, with six hundred and fifty men, put the entire force to rout. Whitefield said, "This deliverance of Georgia is such as cannot be paralleled but by some instances in the Old Testament." Oglethorpe became the hero of the hour, and the Spaniards let him alone. No effort was ever made by them to interfere with the Colony again.

196. Rum and Slavery.—Oglethorpe returned to England, and the colonists demanded that the restrictions upon rum and slaves be removed. After much argument and delay the authorities yielded (1749).

197. A Royal Province.—The trustees surrendered their

¹ The song of the "Mayflower" has been sung for nearly three centuries. Let us look at the song of the "Purisburg." The cruel Leopold made the lovely valley of the Salza, in northern Austria, a land of desolation. Thirty thousand Protestants were forced to leave home and country for exile. These persecuted Christians were invited to colonize Georgia. Forty-two men, with their wives and children, set out on foot for Rotterdam. At Dover, England, they took the oath of allegiance to England, and shipped for the New World in the "Purisburg." The ship had a stormy passage; but on Sunday, March 10, 1734, it pushed into Savannah, and made these "Georgian Pilgrims" glad. They started a town, which they called "Ebenezer," as a perpetual reminder that God had brought them hither. Their honesty, intelligence, and industry made them a rich community, and a strong factor in the development of Georgia.

trust in 1752, and Georgia, like most of the other Colonies, became a royal province.

198. Rise of Methodism.—Charles Wesley was sent to Savannah in 1735 as private secretary to Gen. Oglethorpe, and secretary of Indian affairs in the province. John Wesley, one of the greatest figures in the world's history since the Reformation, was



John Wesley preaching.

sent to Georgia as a minister of the Gospel. In a modest, scantily furnished reception-room of his parsonage in Savannah he cradled the Methodist Episcopal Church. He says, "The first rise of Methodism was in 1729, when four of us met together at Oxford. The second was at Savannah in 1736, when twenty or thirty persons met at my house. The last

was at London in 1738, when forty or fifty of us agreed to meet together every Wednesday evening." The first Methodist Church¹ in America was established in 1764. In 1771, when Asbury came to America, it had about three hundred members, chiefly in New York and Philadelphia. In 1784 a separate church was formed in America, under the name "The Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States of America."

199. The Hebrew Colony.—Although the terms of the trust opened Georgia to all settlers who should be approved by the trustees except Papists, a severe strain was put upon the toleration of the Colony when fifty Hebrews landed at Savannah (1733).

¹ "The Log Meeting-House" on Sam's Creek, Maryland, was built by Robert Strawbridge in 1764, and was the first Methodist Church in America. The second church was established by Embury in New York in 1768, and was called "Wesley Chapel."

Oglethorpe received them, and assigned them lands, but the trustees objected to it. Dr. Nunis, one of these colonists, soon endeared himself to the people by his eminent services. The Hebrews were noted for peaceable behavior, orderly conduct, and industry. The objections to them soon wore away, and they became excellent citizens.

200. The Highlanders.—A large body of Highlanders settled on the Altamaha (1735), and started New Inverness. They were a brave, hardy race, and in their plaids, broadswords, targets, and fire-arms they presented a most manly appearance. From these came some of the most gallant soldiers of the Revolution.



First Methodist Church in America.

European Events that affected America.

NOTE. — These events, and their relation to American growth, should be explained by the teacher. "Fisher's Outlines of Universal History," Part III., may be consulted with profit.

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| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Presbyterianism in Scotland. (<i>a</i>) Destroyed the superstitious deference of the people for human potentates; (<i>b</i>) attacked kingly prerogatives; (<i>c</i>) elevated individual power. 2. Excommunication of Elizabeth by Pius V. (<i>a</i>) Forced Elizabeth to side with Presbyterianism in Scotland; (<i>b</i>) united English thought upon Presbyterianism, and spread its doctrines. 3. Defeat of the Huguenots (St. Bartholomew's Day) in France (1572). 4. The Spanish Armada (1588). 5. Establishment of the Court of High Commission to punish heresy and nonconformity. This gave America Catholics, Pilgrims, Puritans, Independents, Baptists, Quakers. 6. Catholics persecuted by James I. 7. Spoliation of Ulster, Ireland. 8. The Star Chamber. 9. The Solemn League and Covenant of the Scots. 10. Long Parliament and Civil War. 11. Westminster Assembly of Presbyterians (1643). 12. Execution of Charles I. (1649). 13. The Commonwealth. 14. Navigation Acts (1651, 1660). 15. England's War with Holland (1651-54). 16. Formation of the Evangelical Union in Germany. 17. Revolt of the Bohemians (1618). | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 18. Destruction of the Palatinate (1622). 19. Edict of Restitution (1629). 20. Reign of Gustavus Adolphus (1611-32). 21. The Thirty-Years' War (1618-48). 22. The Wars of Louis XIV. 23. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685). This gave the Huguenots to America. 24. Persecutions of Leopold. 25. The Restoration in England (1660). 26. Act of Uniformity (1662). 27. The Test Act (1673). 28. The Popish Plot (1678). 29. Reign of James II. (1685-88). 30. Battle of the Boyne (1690). 31. Bill of Rights } Reign of William 32. Toleration Act } and Mary. 33. Freedom of the press. 34. French devastation of the Palatinate (1688), which gave us the Palatines. 35. War of the Spanish Succession, or Queen Anne's War. 36. John Law's Bank. 37. The Jacobite Rebellion (1715). 38. Battle of Culloden (1746), which drove many Scotch exiles to America. 39. Downfall of Sweden. 40. War of the Austrian Succession, or King George's War. 41. The Seven-Years' or the French and Indian War. 42. The Partition of Poland (1772). |
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Demands of the Puritans.

The following demands made by the Puritans of Scotland of James I. will show some of the differences between the Church of England and these Nonconformists: 1. To preach without wearing the white surplice or gown; 2. To baptize children without making the sign of the cross on the child's forehead; 3. To perform the marriage ceremony without using the ring. A more vital point of difference was, that, instead of the kings appointing bishops, the congregation should choose the presbyters or elders. James's intention was to make all men conform to the Established Church, or drive them out of the land. The different religious bodies, instead of conforming, drifted to the conclusion that every religious society had the right to its own laws irrespective of the State. They were sent to prison, beaten, and denied food, all without effect. They would not conform. The Nonconformists were Roman Catholics, Independents or Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Baptists, Quakers or Friends.

Charles II. peopled America rapidly by trying to enforce the following laws: 1. No Covenanter should hold a municipal office; 2. All office-holders should take the sacrament of the Church of England; 3. Each clergyman and congregation under the Act of Uniformity was required to use the Episcopal Prayer Book; 4. No religious assembly should meet unless it worshiped according to the Established Church; 5. No dissenting minister should teach in any school, or settle within five miles of an incorporated town. By these laws two thousand Presbyterian preachers were driven to the deepest distress in a day. Both Catholics and Protestants suffered, and many executions followed.

Synopsis of the Colonies.

NAME.	BY WHOM SETTLED.	PLACE.	DATE.
New Hampshire.....	English.	Dover.	1623.
Massachusetts	English.	Plymouth.	1620.
Rhode Island.....	English.	Providence.	1636.
Connecticut	English.	Windsor.	1633.
New York	Dutch.	Manhattan.	1614.
New Jersey.....	{ Dutch.	Bergen.	1618.
	{ English.	Elizabeth.	1664.
Pennsylvania	{ Swedes.	Chester.	1638.
	{ English.	Philadelphia.	1682.
Delaware	Swedes.	Wilmington.	1638.
Maryland	English.	St. Marys.	1634.
Virginia	English.	Jamestown.	1607.
North Carolina	English.	Albemarle.	1663.
South Carolina.....	English.	Charleston.	1670.
Georgia	English.	Savannah.	1733.

English Rulers and Synchronous American Events.

ENGLISH RULERS.	DATE.	AMERICAN EVENTS.
James I. (1603-25)	{ 1607.	Settlement at Jamestown.
	{ 1609.	Discovery of the Hudson River.
	{ 1614.	Settlement on Manhattan Island.
	{ 1619.	First Legislature at Jamestown.
	{ 1620.	Landing at Plymouth Rock.
	{ 1621.	First free school, Charles City, Va.
	{ 1623.	Settlement of New Hampshire.
	{ 1626.	Settlement at Salem, Mass.
Charles I. (1625-49)	{ 1633.	Settlement of Connecticut.
	{ 1634.	Settlement at St. Marys.
	{ 1636.	Settlement of Providence, R.I.
	{ 1638.	Settlement of Delaware.
	{ 1643.	Union of New England Colonies.
	{ 1644.	Clayborne's Rebellion.
	{ 1651.	Commissioners appointed to reduce American assemblies.
Cromwell (1649-58)	{ 1653.	Settlement of North Carolina on Chowan and Roanoke Rivers.
	{ 1655.	Swedes conquered by the Dutch.
Rich. Cromwell (1658-60)	{ 1660.	Navigation Act passed.
	{ 1664.	Dutch conquered by the English.
	{ 1664.	Settlement of Elizabeth, N.J.
	{ 1670.	Old Charleston, S.C., settled.
Charles II. (1660-85)	{ 1675.	King Philip's War.
	{ 1680.	Settlement of Charleston, S.C.
	{ 1682.	Settlement of Philadelphia.
	{ 1686.	Andros sent to New England, and the charters annulled.
James II. (1685-88)	{ 1689-97.	King William's War.
	{ 1692.	Salem witchcraft.
William III. and Mary (1689-94)	{ 1698.	Pensacola occupied by Spanish.
William III. (1694-1702).	{ 1702-13.	Queen Anne's War.
Queen Anne (1702-14)	{ 1704.	First newspaper established at Boston.
George I. (1714-27)	{ 1718.	Settlement of New Orleans.
George II. (1727-60)	{ 1733.	Settlement of Georgia.
	{ 1744-48.	King George's War.
	{ 1754-63.	French and Indian War.
	{ 1775-81.	War of the Revolution.
George III. (1760-1820).	{ 1789.	Rise of the United States.
	{ 1807.	First steamboat.
	{ 1812-14.	Second war with Great Britain.
George IV. (1820-30)	{ 1829.	First railroad in United States.
William IV. (1830-37)	{ 1832.	Nullification measures.
Victoria (1837-)	{ 1846-47.	Mexican War.
	{ 1861-65.	War of the Southern Confederacy.

PART IV.—STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY BETWEEN THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH (1689-1763).

CHAPTER XXI.

THE FRENCH IN LOUISIANA.

Leading Events.

Foreign Powers in America (1689).
English Claim and French Occupancy.
Settlement of Alabama, Mississippi,
and Louisiana (1699-1717).

The Mississippi Company (1717).
French Protestants.
Indian Troubles (1729-39).
Adjacent Territory.

201. Foreign Powers in America.—We have followed the English from 1607 to 1733, as they laid the foundations in thirteen Colonies for a strong English civilization in America. Before the end of the seventeenth century two foreign powers, Holland and Sweden, had been forced to relinquish all claim to any part of what is now the United States; and England, Spain, and France were left to contend for the final supremacy.

202. The English Possession and Claim.—The English had settled the Atlantic seaboard, with the exception of Florida and Nova Scotia. This slope is the great key to North America. Its ocean front, its numerous ocean-flowing rivers, its gentle declivity, and its great rampart of mountains on the west, promised its possessors the greatest power in commerce, agriculture, and manufactures, besides giving them the position of control over the regions to the west of it.

203. The French Occupation.—The French people had not been idle while the English were colonizing. They had possession of the valley of the St. Lawrence and the valley of the

Mississippi,—two regions almost unparalleled for resources and prospective power. With great care they selected the strongest places and planted their forts. Louisburg, Quebec, Kingston, Detroit, Pittsburg, Chicago, St. Louis, Memphis, New Orleans, and Mobile mark the spots where the far-seeing Frenchmen began these defensive fortifications. They had possession from Nova Scotia, around the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, the Mississippi, and the Gulf of Mexico, to Mobile. Their cordon of forts almost encircled the English settlements. They were aggressive and obstinate, claiming well up to the Alleghanies and far down into New York and Vermont. They had for allies powerful Indian tribes, and confidently expected to hold the whole country except the narrow strip along the Atlantic which they contemptuously granted to the English.

204. First Settlements in Alabama, Mississippi,¹ and Louisiana.—Le Moyne d'Iberville,² a French naval officer born



Bienville.

in America, after distinguishing himself in other parts of French America, was sent out by France in 1698, together with his brother Bienville, to occupy the mouth of the Mississippi with a settlement. They were opposed by Spaniards at Pensacola, which had been settled in 1698, and so they pushed west into Mobile Bay. From this point they entered the Mississippi, ascended it with great difficulty to the Red River, and

afterwards discovered Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain. The first settlement was made at Biloxi in 1699, but was removed to

¹ Coxe claimed this country under the name "Carolana," and was preparing to settle it by way of the mouth of the Mississippi, when the King of France sent D'Iberville to "hinder the English from taking possession there."

² The life of D'Iberville is quite remarkable. He had gained distinction

Mobile in 1701. Explorations were also made into Alabama, Tennessee, and Mississippi. Bienville was made governor of this region, then called Louisiana;¹ and forts at Natchez (1716) and Natchitoches (1717) were built to keep the English of the Carolinas, and the Spaniards of the West, from encroaching upon these rich lands.

205. The Mississippi Company.—The French King granted all of Louisiana to John Law, who organized the Mississippi Company (1717), to colonize it. There was so much of unwarranted speculation in the scheme, that it finally failed. Twelve miles square on the Arkansas was the part which Law was to colonize individually. Eight hundred emigrants were sent over, and New Orleans was founded in 1718. Lands were sold, and plantations begun. Slavery was introduced, and intercourse opened up with the Illinois Country and with Canada.

206. French Protestants.—While D'Iberville was at Biloxi, certain Protestant refugees from France appeared upon the coast. Finding the French already there, they asked permission to land as French subjects. The answer was that the French King had not chased heretics out of his kingdom to make a republic for them in America.

207. Indian Troubles.—The Natchez and Tensas Indians had peculiar religious temples in which fire was always burning. The first and best fruits of the chase or field were offered to their gods. Human lives were sacrificed upon the death of the grand

in the valley of the St. Lawrence, at Hudson Bay, and on the Atlantic. He argued to the King that if he could hold the mouth of the Mississippi, he could hold the whole valley. The King had little faith in Louisiana after La Salle's disaster, but he consented to D'Iberville's plan. It was the same argument that afterwards led a great President of the United States to secure this region for his country. The mouth of the Mississippi will always be the key to the Mississippi Valley. Four of the Le Moyne brothers were connected with the Colony of Mississippi.

¹ La Salle gave the name "Louisiana" to that portion of the country watered by the Mississippi which lies below the river Illinois. It had two names, — "Louisiana" and "Mississippi,"—each being very indefinite.

chief, and men and women vied with each other for the privilege of being sacrificed. A cruel massacre of two hundred Frenchmen by the Natchez tribe occurred in 1729 at Natchez. The French and Choctaws drove the Natchez into Arkansas. Afterwards the French governor attacked them in their new home, and captured about five hundred prisoners, whom he sold into slavery.

In 1736 Bienville, with twelve hundred men, marched into Tennessee by way of the Tombigbee to attack the Chickasaws, and was repulsed with such severe loss as to make him glad to get back into Louisiana. It is said that his force did not kill or wound one of the enemy. Another expedition was sent by way of Memphis in 1739, but it too failed of its purpose. A treaty of peace followed the next year without any fighting.

208. Adjacent Territory.—The landing of Frenchmen in Texas in 1685 (page 59) resulted in awakening the Spaniards of Mexico to the fact that this was their territory; and they began, with traders, soldiers, and priests, to plant trading posts and missions along the boundaries of Louisiana¹ and Texas. The Illinois Country (that is, the region above the Ohio) prospered, and exported to Louisiana flour, corn, bacon, hams, tallow, leather, lead, fowls, and hides. Fort Chartres,² Kaskaskia, and Vincennes were the leading towns.³

¹ Louisiana was divided in 1722 into nine districts: New Orleans, Mobile, Biloxi, Alabamons (now Alabama), Natchez, Yazoo, Natchitoches, Arkansas, and Illinois.

² Located in Illinois, above Kaskaskia. Vincennes was founded in 1735, and St. Genevieve, Mo., in 1740.

³ The French and Spaniards were the first settlers of the Gulf region. The term "Creole" was applied at a very early date to the descendants of the French born in Louisiana. It has since been applied to the children of Europeans born in the French or Spanish colonies which border on the Gulf. The Creole negroes of the West Indies are not to be confounded with the Creoles of Louisiana. The latter have no admixture of negro blood. Natives of mixed blood claim to be Creoles; but it is not conceded to them by the genuine Creole stock, nor is it true according to the historic meaning of the term.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE EARLY COLONIAL WARS.

Leading Events.

King William's War (1689-97).

Phips's Quebec Expedition (1690).

Queen Anne's War (1702-13).

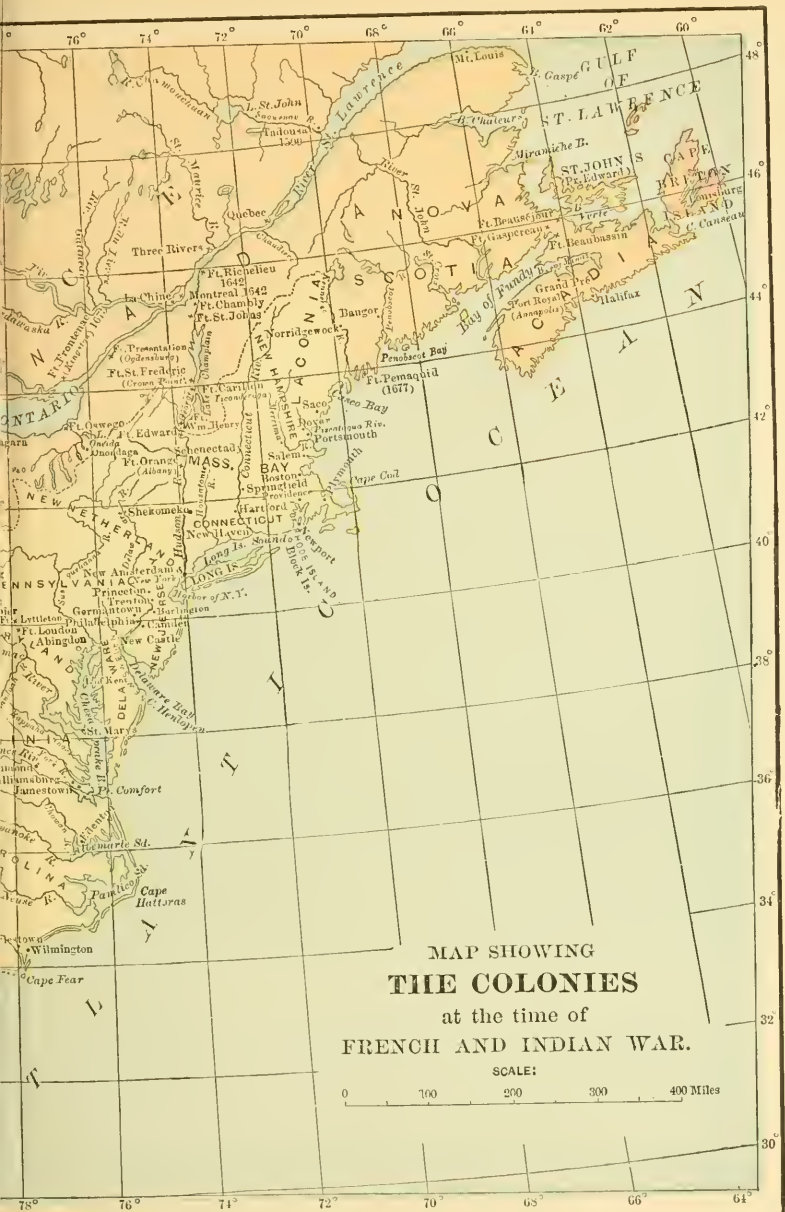
King George's War (1744-48).

209. The French-English Contest for supremacy began in 1689, and ran through a period of seventy-four years. During this time there was almost constant fighting in some part of the country, but four great wars are usually distinguished: (1) King William's War (1689-97), (2) Queen Anne's War (1702-13), (3) King George's War (1744-48), and (4) the French and Indian War (1754-63).

210. King William's War was brought on by Frontenac, the greatest of the French governors in Canada, who attacked the frontier settlements of New York and Massachusetts. The French, with their Indian allies, left Montreal in midwinter, and surprised Schenectady in New York. They burned the town (1690), and butchered the inhabitants. Another party fell upon Haverhill (1697) in Massachusetts, and carried away several prisoners, among them a brave woman, Mrs. Hannah Dustin. Freeing herself from her bonds, she, with another woman and a boy, killed and scalped the whole party of Indians as they slept, and marched back to the settlements with ten scalps. There are few recorded instances of greater courage.

211. Phips's Quebec Expedition.—In 1690 Sir William Phips captured the French fort at Port Royal, Acadia. Emboldened by his success, he set out with an expedition to capture Quebec. Frontenac defeated his flotilla of boats,¹ and Phips

¹ The French, in honor of the victory over the English, built (1691) a little church, Notre Dame Chapel, near the foot of the elevator that at



MAP SHOWING
THE COLONIES
at the time of
FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

SCALE:

0 100 200 300 400 Miles

returned to New England to face an empty treasury and a large expense account. About all that New Englanders had to show for their trouble was the paper money that was issued to pay these bills.

212. Frontenac among the Iroquois.—Frontenac, at the head of a large force, went to Fort Frontenac,¹ and crossed to New York. He marched to the villages of the Iroquois, which were located around the beautiful inland lakes of western New York. The Indians burned (1696) their villages, and fled. Frontenac was almost home before the English at Albany knew that he had entered their territory.

213. The Treaty of Ryswick (1697) ended the war, leaving each party in the same position as at the beginning of the struggle. Port Royal was returned to the French.

214. Queen Anne's War.²—This war went on for about eleven years. Each year had its marches and countermarches, its skirmishes and attacks, but no great actions. The men and women on the frontiers were the greatest sufferers. Its most dastardly act was the attack of the French and Indians on Deerfield, Mass. (1704). After capturing it, they burned it to the ground, and butchered the prisoners. Two attempts were made to recapture Port Royal, which failed. The third one (1710), under the command of Col. Nicholson, succeeded. The Fox Indians tried to wrest Detroit from the French in 1711, but failed. The French garrison stood like heroes.

215. The Peace of Utrecht put an end to the war, leaving

present goes up to Dufferin Terrace. The chapel stands as one of the many curiosities of Quebec. Another chapel on the turnpike road to Montmorenci, still older than Notre Dame, is a still greater wonder, not alone for its age, but for its remarkably small size. It is built of brick, and has seats for twelve persons.

¹ Kingston. The fort was built in 1672. Called "Tête du Pont" in 1789.

² Sometimes called "Gov. Dudley's War," after Gov. Dudley of Boston, Mass.

Annapolis¹ and Nova Scotia in the hands of the English. Acadia was also given to England, but its inhabitants never became English in any sense of the word. They took the oath of allegiance to Great Britain with the express reservation that they were not to bear arms. Thus this second war was a decided gain for the English; and, although Peace spread her wings over the country for the next thirty years, there was no intention to stop hostilities permanently. The breathing-spell was a long one, but it was only a rest preparatory to a greater struggle.

216. King George's War.²— Although this war lasted but a short time, it gave luster to the colonial arms. Louisburg had



Siege of Louisburg.

been fortified at a great expense by France. Protected by its great guns, the merchant vessels and fishing smacks of France

¹ The English changed the name "Port Royal" to "Annapolis," and that of "Acadia" to "Nova Scotia."

² Sometimes called "Shirley's War," or the "Five-Years' War."

entered Canada with safety. The French believed that Louisburg could not be taken, and so did the English colonies; but Gov. Shirley of Boston resolved to make a serious attempt to capture it.¹ He called on New England for a small army, which was promptly furnished.² Four ships of the royal line, carrying a hundred and eighty guns, under Commander Warren, were sent to the aid of Shirley's forces, who were commanded by Sir William Pepperrell of Maine.

Louisburg, after a siege of seven weeks, surrendered (1745). The fall was due more to a lack of defense than to the strength of the assault. Still Louisburg fell. The French had lost it, and the English gained it. Pepperrell was made a baronet, Warren an admiral, and Shirley a colonel, by order of the King. The New Englanders attributed little value to the English fleet, and with great bravado claimed that they had beaten the French behind their granite-built walls. It is by such acts as these that a country comes to know its strength, and to grow into power. The farmers and fishermen of New England had learned that even farmers and fishermen can fight — AND CAN WIN.

217. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.—The disgraceful treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748) put an end to this war. Louisburg was given back to France, but not as it was before the war. It was no longer impregnable. American colonists, backed by the English Navy, had captured it once, and there was no security against their taking it again.

¹ The historian of that day called it "a rash New England corporation adventure." Benjamin Franklin wrote to his brother in Boston, "Fortified towns are hard nuts to crack, and your teeth have not been accustomed to it." The fortifications cost about six millions of dollars, and covered an area of about two miles in circumference. The walls were thirty feet high, surrounded by a ditch eighty feet deep.

² Massachusetts sent 3,250 men; Connecticut 500; New Hampshire, 300. Rhode Island prudently waited till after the surrender before sending her men.

CHAPTER XXIII.

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

Leading Events.

The Situation.	The Union (1754).
The Troops.	Braddock's Defeat (1755).
The Ohio Company (1749).	Fort Pitt (1758).

218. The Situation.—This was the fourth and most important of the early colonial wars. The three previous struggles ended with little permanent effect, other than the increase of hostility on the part of each nation. The French were successful in arraying large bodies of Indians against the English. No house on the frontiers was safe against their attacks; and the warfare there was the torch, the surprise, and the tomahawk. The English felt that there could be no permanent security against Indian warfare while the French held territory in North America. To save themselves from butchery, they resolved, first to rid themselves of the French, and afterwards to manage the Indians. With this resolve the French and Indian War was begun.

219. The Troops.—The French had the advantage in trained soldiers. The Colonies furnished most of the English troops, and they generally were farmers. Up to this time they had entered for a single campaign, and had never acquired that discipline which makes the great military organization. Most of them followed a leader of their own choice, and refused obedience to leaders selected by the English authorities; but increasing danger led them to see the necessity for a closer union and a more rigid military discipline. The Iroquois¹ Indians were

¹ The Indian Confederacy of New York called itself Hodenosaunee; the French called them Iroquois; the English, The Five Nations; the Pennsylvanians, Mingoës. After this the name "Mingo" was also given to the

nearly always considered as subjects of England. The Dutch made fast friends with them, and transferred their friendship to the English. But for this, it is doubtful what would have been the result of the war.

220. The Ohio Company.—Gov. Dinwiddie was instructed by George II. in 1749 to grant the Ohio Land Company five hundred thousand acres of land in the “center of the British Dominion,” as Lord Halifax called the region west of the Alleghanies.¹ This company was made up of Virginians, and was required to colonize and survey the country, and to build a fort. With a North Carolina surveyor, they surveyed from where Pittsburg now is, to the Ottawa and Wyandotte towns near Zanesville, thence to the Indian town Piqua, and down the Miami to the Ohio.²

About this time (1750) the Greenbrier Company began to settle the Greenbrier country in West Virginia. To offset this, the French took possession of the Ohio valley by burying from Erie along the Ohio to its mouth a number of leaden claim-plates. They also built three forts on English soil,—Presque Isle, Le Bœuf, and Venango.³ The English fought by starting new settlements; the French, by building forts.

221. George Washington.—Before declaring war against the French, Gov. Dinwiddie of Virginia resolved to try diplomacy. He chose George Washington, then but twenty-one years of age, and sent him with his demands to the French at Fort Venango. There were no roads; and the journey from Williamsburg, the capital of Virginia, to western Pennsylvania, was hazardous in the extreme. With seven companions he set

Senecas of Ohio. The Mingoes were really the Andastes, a subject tribe of the Iroquois.

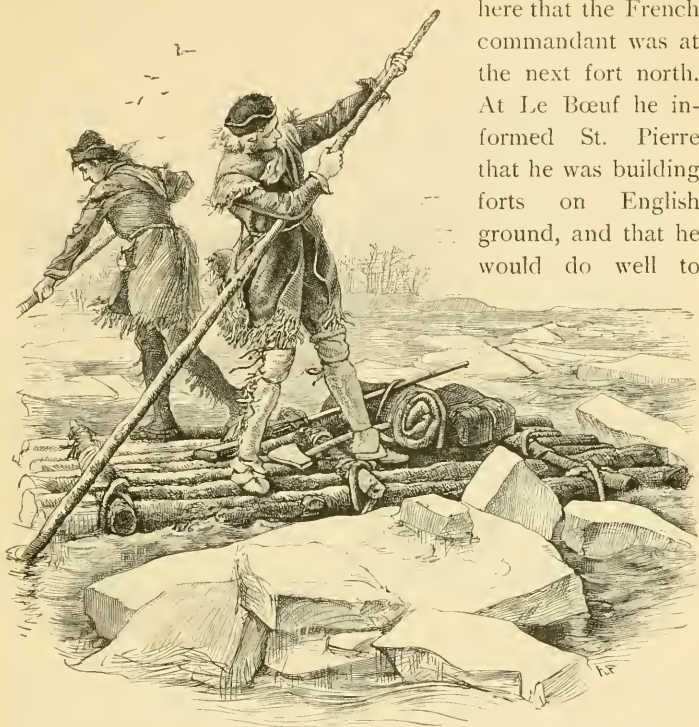
¹ Up to 1757 Virginia had granted three million acres west of the mountains.

² Fort Miami (Fort Wayne, Ind.) was founded in 1750 by the French, as was Fort Sandusky in Ohio. Detroit was already a strong post.

³ Presque Isle is now Erie; Le Bœuf, Waterford; Venango, Franklin. The ruins of these forts are still to be seen.

out, and after a journey of two months reached Venango, the most southern of the forts, in December, 1753. He was told

here that the French commandant was at the next fort north. At Le Bœuf he informed St. Pierre that he was building forts on English ground, and that he would do well to



Washington's Return to Virginia.

evacuate. St. Pierre answered that his orders were to hold the Ohio valley, and that he should obey. Washington retraced his steps over the Alleghanies with the answer that precipitated the last war between the French and the English, and from which came the English conquest of French America.

222. War declared.—Gov. Dinwiddie declared war (1754) against the French, and the Assembly of Virginia voted fifty thousand dollars to carry it on. Two hundred Virginians were

sent on under Washington to erect a fort at the forks of the Ohio. Before they reached there, a company of rangers from the Hampshire Hills in Virginia pushed up to this place, and began the work. A large body of French and Indians advanced upon the rangers, and forced them to the south. The French finished the fort, and called it Fort Duquesne. Washington then crossed the mountains, and built Fort Necessity at a place called Great Meadows. Hearing that a party of French were secreted near this place, he marched out and surprised them. Washington gave the command, "Fire!" and fired the first shot himself. The French were routed May 28, 1754, losing their commander, Jumonville, together with all the force except one man.

Washington and his Virginians returned to Great Meadows, which he attempted to strengthen by intrenchments. A large body of French attacked him early in July, and, although he resisted them stoutly, he was forced to capitulate. He was permitted to march his troops out of the fort with all the honors of war, and to return to Virginia. The march back without horses or cattle, the men carrying the wounded, was dismal in the extreme. In all the Ohio valley no English flag was to be seen.

223. Union of the Colonies.—A convention of all the Colonies north of the Potomac met at Albany (1754) and adopted a plan of union offered by Benjamin Franklin. It accomplished nothing; the plan being rejected by the English authorities because of its too great freedom, and opposed by the people of the Colonies because of its too great central authority. At this juncture Dinwiddie appealed to the Crown. England sent Gen. Braddock and a small force to help the colonists. France sent Gen. Dieskau with a small fleet to succor the French.

224. Braddock's Defeat.—Gen. Braddock started (1755) from Fort Cumberland, in extreme western Maryland, with his two regiments of regular troops and one thousand Virginians,¹ for Fort Duquesne. The soldiers with their red uniforms

¹ These Virginians were principally from the valley of the Shenandoah.

marched along the "new-cut" road with banners flying to strains of royal music. In vain did Washington protest, telling the general that his methods might do in England against trained soldiers, but that they were very weak in a warfare against sav-



Braddock's Defeat.

ages. With a few scouts a short distance ahead of the vanguard, and with flanking parties ranging the woods on either side, forward marched the army openly and boldly towards Duquesne, but it never reached there.

The French commander, knowing his inability to hold the fort in an open fight, sent his Canadians and Indian allies forward to attack Braddock from ambush at the Monongahela ford. For some reason the trap was not laid as planned, and Braddock crossed the river in safety. His vanguard met the French and Indians in the deep woods some ten miles from the fort. In spite of the utmost efforts and most undaunted courage of Braddock and his officers, panic took possession of the men who had faced a hundred cannons, and ignominious flight carried

them from their unseen foes. Braddock fell, mortally wounded, and but twenty-three officers remained out of eighty-six. The Virginians sprang behind trees, and began to pick off the Indians as they rushed upon their prey. Washington threw his rangers between the Indians and the English soldiers, and thus protected their flight. Thus ended the campaign in the West.

225. Indian Atrocities.—The Indians began a merciless war on all the settlements from Fort Duquesne to Fort Loudon, in East Tennessee, which forced the Virginians to erect a line of forts along the mountains, and to send the Sandy Creek Expedition under Major Andrew Lewis to the Ohio River (1756). This movement distracted the Indians, and gave the settlers a year of comparative peace. This was the first military expedition to reach the Ohio south of Pittsburg.

226. Capture of Fort Duquesne.—A second expedition, under the English general, Forbes, was sent (1758) against Duquesne, with Washington commanding the Virginians. Forbes was more cautious than Braddock had been. He cleared up wide roads as he went along, so that ambuscades would be impossible. But this took time, and cold weather found him fifty miles from the fort. While discussing a retreat, the news was received that the garrison at the fort was very weak, and it was decided to push ahead. Washington and his rangers were put in the lead to prevent an ambush. They reached the fort, to find it in flames. The French, knowing their inability to hold it, had set it on fire, and retreated down the Ohio in boats. Thus the long-coveted gateway to the West was in the hands of the English, and the West country was open to settlement, with no opposition save that of the skulking Indians. Fort Duquesne was rebuilt and called Fort Pitt, to give place in time to the iron city Pittsburg.

CHAPTER XXIV.

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR, *Continued.*

Leading Events.

Acadia and Louisburg (1755).
Battle of Lake George (1755).
Crown Point and Ticonderoga (1759).
Niagara (1759).
Quebec (1759).

Battle on Plains of Abraham (1759).
Pontiac's War (1763).
The Cherokee War (1756-61).
Forts Loudon and Prince George.
Cessions and Treaties.

227. Acadia and Louisburg.—At the very beginning of the war, Acadia was attacked and captured. All the forts at the head of the Bay of Fundy were taken, and the whole of Nova Scotia fell into the hands of the English. After vainly endeavor-



Embarkation at Acadia.

ing to secure the allegiance of the French Acadian peasants, the English determined to scatter them through the English colonies, so that it would be impossible for them to render the French any material assistance. This harsh policy was carried out to the letter. The people were loaded on shipboard (1755), and dis-

tributed among the Colonies.¹ After many hardships and wanderings, the greater portion of the Acadians made their way back to Nova Scotia. Some of them reached Louisiana, where, under the name "Cajans," they form a distinct colony to-day. Three years after the capture of Acadia, the English, under Amherst and Wolfe, bombarded Louisburg and captured it (1758). Louisburg had twice proved its weakness as a French fort, and from this time on remained in the hands of the English. The English flag waved over all Nova Scotia and Cape Breton Island.

228. Battle of Lake George.—Braddock appointed Gov. Shirley to command the troops against Niagara, and Gen. Johnson those against Crown Point and Ticonderoga. After Braddock's death, his plans became known to the French, and Dieskau was sent to the relief of Crown Point. Johnson gathered his troops at Lake George, where he was attacked by Dieskau (1755). Johnson was wounded, and borne from the field; but the battle went on under Gen. Lyman, and terminated in a defeat for the French. Johnson built a fort at this place, which he called Fort William Henry, and changed the name of "Fort Lyman" on the portage to "Fort Edward." This defeat at Lake George offset the victory of the French at Duquesne.

229. Change of Plans.—Meanwhile affairs changed in England. William Pitt, the great prime minister, prevailed upon the King to change his course in the management of the war. The King was to furnish the great division commanders, the money, and the arms; while the colonists were to furnish the minor officers and the men. Promotion was to be made according to seniority of rank, with no preference in favor of the regular army. It was no longer possible to make a provincial major-general subject to a regular major, as had been done the year before. The colonists felt that they had an equal chance to win the honors as well as to bear the burdens, and sprang to

¹ Our great poet Longfellow has lent an immortal interest to this incident by the production of his great poem *Evangeline*.

the work with alacrity. The sound policy of Pitt was felt in every department of the service after 1757, and soon substituted a general enthusiasm for a grumbling support.¹

230. Capture of Crown Point and Ticonderoga.—Two years were spent after the battle of Lake George in fruitless attempts upon Crown Point and Ticonderoga.² Abercrombie, with a thousand boats full of soldiers, pushed over Lake George with banners flying, to capture Ticonderoga. Montcalm repulsed him with great loss.³ In 1759 one of the heroes of Louisburg, Gen. Amherst, approached these forts with a large force, and captured them. This left the French with no foothold south of the St. Lawrence.



Montcalm.

231. Niagara.—Shirley made an ineffectual attempt against Niagara in 1755. Four years afterwards Gen. Amherst sent Prideaux to capture this fort at all hazards. This faithful general bravely executed his mission, but lost his life in the moment of victory.⁴

232. Wolfe at Quebec.—Gen. James Wolfe, after the capture of Louisburg in 1758, was sent to take Quebec. Quebec was then and is now the strongest military point in America.

¹ Of the four men intrusted by Pitt with supreme command, three were successful, — Wolfe, Amherst, and Forbes.

² The capture of Fort William Henry at the lower end of Lake George, where Caldwell now stands, was one of the most brilliant achievements of the French general, Montcalm (1757).

³ The failure of Abercrombie was offset in part by the brilliant action of Bradstreet, who, with three thousand men, crossed Lake Ontario and captured Fort Frontenac. He leveled it to the ground, and recrossed to Oswego.

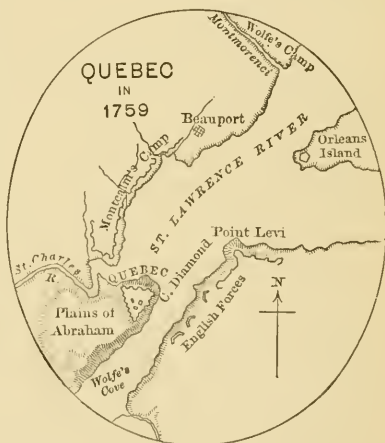
⁴ Montcalm captured Fort Ontario, and turned his cannon against Fort Oswego (1756). The garrison made a brave resistance, but surrendered after the death of their commander, Col. Mercer. A frightful massacre of the prisoners by drunken Indians is said to have occurred. Montcalm did what he could to restrain the Indians, but was powerless.

Wolfe landed his nine thousand soldiers on the island opposite the Falls of Montmorenci. Montcalm knew that this was the last stronghold of France in America, and determined to wear his opponent out without risking a general fight. In this he nearly succeeded. Wolfe divided his army, and from Point Levi shelled the city. He next landed below Montcalm, near the falls, and kept up a constant cannonading. From Point Levi, from Orleans, from Montmorenci, and from his ships, he made the night brilliant with streaks of shells. But Montcalm would not move.



Gen. Wolfe.

233. Battle on the Plains of Abraham.—Wolfe determined to force his opponent to fight. With a glass he discovered a ravine leading up the precipitous bank which he decided could be climbed. Night came on, and under its protecting mantle he with a small army dropped down with the tide, hugging the French side. They landed at Wolfe's Cove, and clambered up the rugged ravine to the top. Morning found them on the Plains of Abraham, above Quebec. Montcalm must fight. At ten o'clock in the morning (Sept.



13, 1759) Montcalm made an onset. The trained soldiers of two nations knew that the hour for a great battle had come. Wolfe held back his order to fire until the French were very near. Then he ordered a volley, and as the smoke cleared away he gave the command to charge. At the head of the Louisburg

grenadiers he rushed forward in that glorious charge to his death. Twice was he hit before the fatal bullet struck him down. As he fell, the French turned, and the English shouted, "They fly, they fly!"—"Who fly?" said Wolfe. "The French," was the answer. "Then I die happy," was his last response. Montcalm rode from side to side, trying to stop the headlong flight of his men, and received his death shot just as he entered the town. The French retreated up the river, and Quebec was in the hands of the English. From its effects, this battle has been called one of the great battles of the world.

234. The End of the War.—This virtually ended the war. The whole French army surrendered the next year (1760) to Amherst at Montreal, and were transferred to England as prisoners of war. This ended the French occupation of the Northern Continent, for by the treaty of Paris (1763) the English were left in control of the whole country east of the Mississippi, except New Orleans, which, with all Louisiana west of the river, was transferred to Spain. Spain ceded Florida to England.

235. Pontiac's War.—In 1763 Pontiac endeavored to unite all the Western Indians against the English, but his plans were discovered and frustrated. No general engagement took place, but the settlements and the forts throughout the West were subjected to savage warfare, and thousands of settlers moved farther east. Finally Pontiac was killed by a faithless Indian.

236. The Cherokee War (1756-61).—Lord Loudon, while governor of Virginia, sent a few hundred men across the mountains to build a fort at the head of navigation on the Tennessee. About midway of the beautiful valley of East Tennessee, near Knoxville, they built Fort Loudon (1756). No road ran to it, and no settlements were near it. Fort Tellico was built on the same river, and Fort Prince George on the Savannah (1755). After the fall of Fort Duquesne, the Cherokees determined to break up Fort Loudon, and to strike the frontier settlements of North and South Carolina. Fort Prince George was attacked

by Oconostota, one of the ablest Cherokee orators and leaders. The war spread from the Savannah to the Holston. Amherst sent Montgomery, who marched with the Carolinians from Charleston, to Fort Prince George. He captured the Indian town Little Keowee (June, 1760), and put the warriors to death. Estotoe was burned to the ground, together with several other towns. At Etchoe, Montgomery's force was caught in an ambuscade, and suffered the usual butchery. He returned to Charleston, and abandoned the war.

237. Forts Loudon and Prince George.—Meanwhile the garrison at Fort Loudon was left to its fate. It was cut off from the world in location, and the Indians had it under siege. Its soldiers ate the flesh of horses and dogs, and, when these gave out, they surrendered. Canada being reduced, Col. Grant, with a detachment of British regulars, was sent to subdue the Cherokees. A provincial army of men from North and South Carolina went with him to Fort Prince George. At Etchoe, the very same spot where Montgomery had been ambushed, he met the savages. They fought bravely for three hours, but were forced to fly (1761). This brought peace at once.

238. Cessions and Treaties.—The Colonies began to pay the soldiers bounties in Western lands. This soon brought the country face to face with the question "Where is the boundary between the English and the Indians?" At Fort Stanwix (Rome), N.Y., the Indians agreed (1768) to cede the lands south of the Ohio and the Allegheny Rivers to the whites. The Cherokees afterwards agreed to the Kanawha River as a boundary. It was impossible, however, to stop the march of the settlements westward. The land was wild; civilization needed it; and the backwoodsman, despite all boundaries, stepped over and took it. At King's Fort, in Augusta, Ga., seven hundred Creeks, Cherokees, Catawbas, Chickasaws, and Choctaws met the five governors of the southern provinces, agreed upon a boundary line, and effected a permanent treaty of peace (1763). This has been called the Treaty of Five C's with the Five G's.

Exploration and Settlement of the United States.

Leading Persons.

Menendez.	De Ayllon.	Dinwiddie.
De Tonti.	Locke.	Berkeley.
Capt. John Smith.	Carteret.	Bacon.
Raleigh.	De Vaca.	De Narvaez.
Henry Hudson.	Roger Williams.	Pocahontas.
Miles Standish.	Lord Delaware.	John Winthrop.
Duke of York.	Massasoit.	Peter Minuit.
John Eliot.	Peter Stuyvesant.	John Carver.
Braddock.	Edmund Andros.	Gen. Montcalm.
Washington.	Gen. Wolfe.	King Philip.
Champlain.	William Penn.	Lord Baltimore.
George Whitefield.	James Oglethorpe.	Hennepin.
Count Zinzendorf.	John Wesley.	La Salle.

Leading Places.

St. Lawrence.	St. Augustine.	Prudhomme.
Tampa Bay.	Port Royal.	Mississippi.
New Mexico.	Roanoke Island.	Philadelphia.
Elizabethtown.	Jamestown.	New Amsterdam.
Providence.	Plymouth.	New Haven.
Hartford.	Boston.	Salem.
Fort Tonti.	St. Marys.	Charleston.
Acadia.	Savannah.	Fort Duquesne.
Quebec.	Louisburg.	Schenectady.
Deerfield.	Haverhill.	Dover.
Mecklenburg.	Brunswick.	Opequon.
Fort Loudon.	Kaskaskia.	St. Vincent.
St. Genevieve.	Mauvila.	Fort Christiana.

Leading Topics.

Ohio.	Missions.
Florida.	Other Events in New England.
The Northmen.	Early Days in New England.
The Story of Columbus.	New Jersey and the Quakers.
The Men who dwelt here before us.	The Religious Bodies.
Other Discoverers and Explorers.	William Penn and his Colony.
Claims of Different Nations.	The French and Indian War.
Settlements.	East Tennessee.
How Virginia was settled.	Delaware, or New Sweden.
How the People lived.	Maryland.
Settlement of New York.	Kentucky.
French Explorations.	The Carolinas.
French Occupancy.	Georgia.
Life in Amsterdam.	Louisiana.
The New England Colonies : —	The French in America.
Massachusetts. Connecticut.	Mississippi.
Rhode Island. New Hampshire.	Three Indian Wars.

The Following Terms should be well understood.

Deed.	General Court.	Province.
Grant.	States General.	State.
Cession.	Natural rights.	Borough.
Quitclaim.	Political rights.	Municipium.
Charter.	Civil rights.	Civil liberty.
Gift.	Religious rights.	Absolute liberty.
Grant.	Republic.	Legal liberty.
Purchase.	Democracy.	Natural liberty.
Discovery.	Proprietary.	Religious liberty.
Conquest.	Monarchy.	Natural law.
Occupation.	Shire.	Revealed law.
Fee simple.	Town.	Divine law.
Parliament.	Township.	Statute law.
House of Lords.	Hundred.	Canon law.
House of Commons.	Country.	Municipal law.
Colonial Council.	Fatherland.	Common law.
Governor's Council.	Parish.	Constitutional law.
Executive Council.	County.	Written law.
House of Burgesses.	Colony.	Unwritten law.
Assembly.	City.	Custom law.
Legislature.	Home.	Ex post facto law.
Town meeting.	Mother tongue.	International law.

Are the Following Rights, or Privileges?

Suffrage.	Trade.	Interstate travel.
Life.	Office.	Interstate trade.
Travel.	Liberty.	Happiness.

May privileges become rights?

Define the Difference between the Following Terms.

Laws.	Customs.	Treaties.	Ordinances.
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Contrast the Following Terms.

Liberty and Slavery.
 Freedom and Anarchy.
 Liberty and License.
 Absolute Rights with Legal Rights.
 Political Rights with Political Privileges.

PART V.—REVOLUTION AND INDEPENDENCE¹ (1760–89).

CHAPTER XXV.

OPPRESSIVE LEGISLATION.

Leading Events.

Oppressive Legislation (1733–64).
Writs of Assistance (1761).
Opposition in the Colonies (1761–66).
Stamp Act Congress (1765).

Quartering Act (1765).
The Boston Massacre (1770).
Battle of Alamance (1771).
The Boston Tea Party (1773).

239. Oppressive Legislation.—In 1733 the Importation Act was passed to aid the old Navigation Act, which required all colonial exports to be sent to England, and in British ships. It laid heavy duties upon sugar, molasses, and rum. The colonists set it at defiance. Parliament declared (1750) that iron-works should not be erected in America; steel was not to be manufactured; and the people were also forbidden to chop down the pine trees of the boundless forest.

240. Writs of Assistance.—Parliament passed a law² (1761), authorizing customhouse officers to break open houses in search of smuggled goods.³ The legality of this Act was

¹ The population of the Thirteen Colonies in 1760 amounted to 1,695,000. Virginia was the most populous, numbering 204,000; Massachusetts came next, with 200,000; then Pennsylvania, with 190,000; Connecticut, 130,000; Maryland, 104,000; New York, 85,000; New Jersey, 84,000; North Carolina, 80,000.

² Adam Smith, the great author of *The Wealth of Nations*, said of this law, "England has founded an empire on the other side of the Atlantic for the sole purpose of raising a people of customers for her shop-keepers."

³ Smuggling was the result of the Importation Law of 1733.





tested before the courts of the land. During the trial, James Otis, a patriot from Boston, uttered a sentence which became famous. "Taxation," he said, "without representation, is tyranny." The people began to talk of resistance by force of arms.

241. The Ministry of George III., headed by Lord Grenville (1764), claimed the following rights for the English Parliament: (1) to tax the Colonies directly; (2) to tax them indirectly; (3) to restrict their manufactures; (4) to regulate their commerce; (5) to break into houses in search of smuggled goods; (6) to quarter troops among them without their consent.



William Pitt.

These claims of the British ministry were denied by William Pitt and other prominent members of Parliament; but the Parliament itself was almost entirely in accord with the claims of Lord Grenville. The excuse offered for the taxation was that the expenses of the French and Indian War were very great, and that the burden of these had fallen upon the mother country. The Colonies claimed¹ that they had taxed themselves

through their Assemblies for their share of this expense, and that Parliament had no right to tax them at all. The old laws against trade were therefore executed with greater rigor.

242. Riot in North Carolina.— Francis Corbin, one of the King's agents in North Carolina, was arrested for attempting to collect licenses and poll-taxes. The matter terminated in a riot (1763), which strengthened the popular side of the question concerning parliamentary taxation without colonial representation.

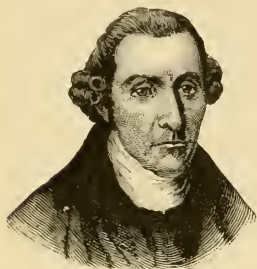
¹ Thomas Jefferson, a Virginia statesman, declared in an address to the King, "America was conquered and her settlements were made at the expense of individuals, and not of the British public. Their own blood was spilt in acquiring land, and their own fortunes were expended upon their settlement. For themselves they fought, for themselves they conquered, and for themselves alone they have the right to hold. Not a shilling was ever issued from the public treasury of his Majesty till of very late times, after the Colonies had become established upon a firm footing."

243. The Case of the Virginia Parsons.—The English authorities were determined to exercise control over the Colonies, despite their opposition. The Act of the Virginia Assembly which forbade the further importation of slaves into Virginia was set aside in London, and created a storm of indignation in Virginia (1763). The Virginia Assembly had also passed a law fixing the price of the tobacco which the statutes allowed as a salary to the clergymen. This law was annulled by the King. The preachers at Hanover Court House brought suit to obtain the difference between the market price of the tobacco and the price fixed by the statute. Patrick Henry, then only twenty-seven years of age, was the advocate of the people. In his speech (December, 1763) he said, "The king who annuls a law of so salutary a nature degenerates into a tyrant, and forfeits all right to obedience." This sentiment, although called treasonable, was an index to the feelings of the people, and showed that allegiance to the King was growing weaker. The preachers won the case, but were given but one penny as damages.

244. The Sugar Act.—Parliament then (1764) passed the Sugar Act, which lowered the taxes on many things, but declared a right to tax America for "revenue only." This was resisted throughout the Colonies. Samuel Adams of Boston said, "We claim British rights not by charter only: we are born to them." From New Hampshire to Georgia the discontent grew, and gradually ripened into the doctrine, "Resistance to tyrants is obedience to God."

245. The Stamp Act.—George Grenville, prime minister of England, brought before Parliament a bill which called out the bitterest denunciations of the Colonies. This was the Stamp Act (1765). It required the use of stamps upon all law papers, newspapers, and pamphlets. Bitter was the fight against it in America. The people did not object to paying taxes in the form of stamps,—in fact, the method of the tax was considered good,—but they objected to the tax itself.

246. Opposition in the Colonies.—In Virginia, Patrick Henry¹ introduced a resolution into the Assembly in May (1765), which declared that the General Assembly of the whole Colony



Patrick Henry.

had the sole right and power to levy taxes on the inhabitants of the Colony. This resolution was adopted, and similar resolutions were taken up in turn and adopted by nearly all of the other Colonies. It was everywhere resolved that the Stamp Act should never be enforced. The royal governor of Virginia dissolved the Assembly, but the eloquence of the "Forest-born Demosthenes" traveled throughout the Colonies. The oldest American Colony had spoken, and the effect was electrical.

247. In North Carolina the General Assembly was in session at New Berne, May, 1765, when the news of the passage of the law reached that place. Gov. Tryon asked the speaker of the House, Col. John Ashe, what the House would do as to the new law. The speaker answered fearlessly, "We will resist its execution to the death." That very day Tryon sent the Assembly home. The people took the stamp agent before the mayor of Wilmington, and forced him publicly to resign his office, and to make oath that he would never have anything more to do with the stamps.

Two ships were seized at Brunswick in February, 1766, by the customhouse officers, for entering the harbor with unstamped clearance papers. This provoked a storm. Armed men in broad daylight, without masks, broke into the collector's office, and carried off the clearance papers. Another body of armed

¹ This great Virginia orator closed his speech for this resolution with the famous words, "Cæsar had his Brutus; Charles I., his Cromwell; and George III."—"Treason, treason!" cried the speaker—"may profit by their example," continued Henry. "If this be treason, make the most of it."

men went into the harbor, and took the ships from the royal guards. They surrounded the governor's house, and demanded the body of the stamp distributor. He was forced to swear that he would never issue any stamped paper in the Colony.

248. In other Colonies.— At Faneuil Hall, Boston, the Act was bitterly denounced by Samuel Adams. The "Sons of Liberty" met, and pulled down the building where the stamps were to be sold. They then hung the stamp agent in effigy, and dis-



Excitement over Stamp Act.

persed. A favorite motto of theirs was, "Liberty, property, and no stamps." At Philadelphia, when the stamp ship arrived, all the vessels in the harbor dropped their flags to half-mast, and the city bells began to toll the death of liberty. New York City was thoroughly aroused, and declared that the stamps should not land. Copies of the Act were distributed through the streets of

the city, headed "The Folly of England and the Ruin of America." In Georgia the stamps were hidden by the royal governor to protect them, and were never used.¹

249. The Stamp Act Congress.—Rhode Island first suggested a meeting of all the Colonies for discussion of the best means to surmount the increasing difficulties. James Otis, the intrepid friend of liberty, pushed this matter through the Massachusetts Assembly, and fixed a date for the delegates to assemble. Twenty-eight delegates from nine of the Colonies met at New York in October of 1765,² adopted a declaration of rights and grievances, and sent a joint petition to the King. It asserted (1) a claim to the full privileges of Englishmen; (2) the legislative power of their own assemblies; (3) that Parliament could not tax them; and (4) the right of trial by jury. The Legislatures of Virginia and North Carolina had been dissolved before delegates could be appointed. They, together with New Hampshire and Georgia, were in full accord with the movement.

250. Non-Importation.³—The colonists agreed that they would buy no goods from England until the Stamp Act was repealed. They started their own spinning wheels and looms, and

¹ To protect certain ships that feared to depart from Savannah without stamped clearance papers, the Georgians consented to relax their opposition for that single case, and to allow the stamps to be used. South Carolina took offense at this, and denounced Georgia. Every vessel trading with Georgia was to be burned. Two vessels cleared the Charleston harbor bound for Savannah. The excited South Carolinians pursued them, brought them back, and destroyed them, together with their cargoes. Thus deeply did South Carolinians hate the detested stamps. It is needless to say that Georgians hated the Act as deeply as did their neighbors in South Carolina.

² Of this Congress it has been said, "It was an assembly graced by large ability, genius, learning, and common sense. It was calm in its deliberations, seemingly unmoved by the whirl of political waters." Christopher Gadsden of South Carolina, in the course of a discussion in this Congress, gave vent to the following sentiment, which under various guises has traveled from lip to lip throughout America: "There ought to be no New England man, no New Yorker, known on the Continent; but all of us Americans."

³ In Maryland non-importation was called "touching-the-pocket-nerve" Baltimore was the last city to recede from the non-importation agreement.

began other manufactures. Frugality and industry,¹ enjoined on all, were practiced in almost every life. The lawyers and rich citizens put on homespun clothes, and refused to wear anything made from imported goods. On the 1st of November, 1765, the Act was to go into operation. Shops were closed, business stopped, bells tolled, and flags hung at half-mast, to indicate the death of liberty.

251. Repeal of the Stamp Act.—The Stamp Act was repealed the following year (1766). Two causes led to this: (1) the clamor of English merchants who had lost a market for their goods, and were on the verge of commercial ruin; and (2) the courage and daring of the colonists. William Pitt stood up in Parliament, and said, "In my opinion, this kingdom has no right to lay a tax on the Colonies. I rejoice that America has resisted." Parliament repealed the law, but asserted while doing so that the right to tax had not been relinquished. This reservation did not prevent the colonists from enjoying their victory. Holidays were held from Portsmouth to Savannah. Bonfires, banners, cannons, and bells proclaimed the people's joy. William Pitt became the hero of the hour, and statues were erected to the man who had the courage to say to a hostile Parliament, "You have no right to tax America."

252. The Quartering Act.—Although the Stamp Act was repealed, the Quartering Act, which permitted Parliament to quarter troops in the Colonies, remained in full force. Gen. Gage was quartered at New York with a detachment of royal troops, and demanded of the New York Assembly that it provide by law for their support. This was complied with; but, when Capt. Phillips demanded the same thing of the Georgia Assembly, it was refused (January, 1767). They said, "There is no difference between a tax fixed by Parliament without our consent, and one wrung from an unwilling colonial Assembly at the point of a

¹ Franklin had written from England these words: "The sun of liberty is set, and you must light up the candles of industry and economy."

Parliament bayonet. We will pay neither." The New York Assembly reconsidered its action, and refused the support.

253. New Taxes.—Parliament passed another "revenue law" in 1767, which imposed certain duties upon glass, paper, pasteboard, white and red lead, and tea. The colonists declared that they would import none of the goods named in the law, and the old non-importation clubs sprang into existence at once. The Maryland Assembly took high ground, declaring that life without liberty is worse than death. They also organized the "Maryland Liberty Lottery" to raise funds to place their grievances before the Crown. Every lover of liberty purchased a ticket, and held it as a badge of honor. The "Letters of a Pennsylvania Farmer," whose author was John Dickinson of Philadelphia, had a wide circulation, and argued with great power the unconstitutionality of the Acts. Parliament again retreated before the gathering storm by repealing the law as to everything except tea. The tax on tea was permitted to remain, and was so very small that it was cheaper to buy tea with the tax added than to smuggle it. It was not, however, a question of the amount of tax: the colonists declared (1770) that no right existed to collect any tax, and that no tax should be paid.

254. The Boston Massacre.—Soldiers were sent to the Colonies, and the people were required to house and feed them. Two regiments were sent to Boston. The soldiers and citizens had numerous fights, in one of which several citizens were killed (1770). The soldiers who fired were tried for murder, were given a fair trial, and were defended by some of the best lawyers in New England. All but two were acquitted.

255. Battle of Alamance.—Meanwhile Gov. Tryon, the "Great Wolf" of North Carolina, was carrying his high-handed measures of oppression into direful execution. Exactions in fees of the most exorbitant character were carried on in open defiance of law and right. The people of western North Carolina resolved to redress their own wrongs. Bodies of men called

"Regulators" sprang into existence, and patrolled the country. The governor ordered them to disperse. The sturdy yeomanry refused. The governor marched westward, and met the patriots at Alamance. Here a desperate battle was fought (1771), and



Battle of Alamance.

the first blood shed for political liberty. The patriots were defeated, and nine of their bodies left upon the field. Bancroft says that Alamance is the connecting link between the Stamp Act and Lexington.

256. The Boston Tea Party.—Three ships of tea were sent to Boston in 1773. The patriotic citizens of Boston declared that not one leaf of this tea should ever be landed. The ships came to anchor in Boston harbor, and lay there nineteen days, waiting for some one to buy and unload the tea. At this juncture a company of citizens disguised as Indians rushed to the wharf, boarded the vessels, and emptied every chest of tea into the harbor. This tea party cost the East India Company a hundred thousand dollars, and is the costliest one on record. The tea designed for New York and Philadelphia was not permitted to be landed, and was taken back to England. At Charleston tea was landed and purposely stored in damp cellars, where it rotted, and was entirely lost.

CHAPTER XXVI.

COLONIES ORGANIZING FOR RESISTANCE.

Leading Events.

Four Oppressive Laws (1774).
First Continental Congress (1774).
Lexington and Concord (1775).

Ticonderoga (1775).
The Mecklenburg Declaration (1775).
Second Continental Congress (1775).

257. The Four Colonial Acts.—Parliament, upon hearing of the destruction of the tea at Boston, resolved to make the colonists suffer for it. Lord North, a bitter enemy to American ideas, was prime minister, and he declared that nothing short of absolute submission to the authority of Parliament would bring peace to the country. One speaker uttered, amidst applause, these words: “The town of Boston ought to be knocked about their ears and destroyed.” Coercion was resolved upon almost unanimously, and took shape in four bills (1774): (1) The Boston Port Bill; (2) A Bill to regulate the Government of Massachusetts; (3) A Bill to transport Offenders to other Provinces or to Great Britain for Trial; (4) The Quebec Bill.

The first bill closed the port of Boston to all outside trade until it paid for the tea. The second measure took the right of nomination of certain officers from the people and gave it to the governor, and forbade the assembling of the people to discuss general questions. The third bill gave to any one charged with murder committed in aid of the magistrates the right to be tried in England, and not in the Colonies. The fourth bill annexed all the territory north of the Ohio River and east of the Mississippi to Canada.

258. Committees of Correspondence.—From the beginning two sets of committees had been at work in each Colony. The first was suggested by Massachusetts, and consisted of a number

of men elected by each town or county to correspond with each other for the general good. The second, suggested by Virginia, was a legislative committee of correspondence in each Colony. In every town, county, and province, the best men were chosen for work upon these committees, and to their action is to be credited the remarkable unanimity with which the whole country acted. The interest of every hamlet was at stake, and every hamlet spoke its sentiments through its accredited committee.

259. The First Continental Congress.—The Virginia Assembly, by resolution, set apart the day on which the Boston Port Bill was to take effect as a day for fasting, humiliation, and prayer. The Assembly of Maryland asked the other Colonies to join in a Congress for the discussion of colonial measures. These suggestions were adopted by the other Colonies; and on the fifth day of September, 1774, the First Continental Congress¹ of America met at Carpenter's Hall, Philadelphia. This great Congress asserted (1) that all Americans had an absolute right to life, liberty, and property; (2) that they were bound by no law to which they had not given their consent; (3) that they had the sole right to tax themselves; (4) that they possessed the inalienable right to trial by a jury of the neighborhood, and the right to petition; and (5) they protested against the quartering of standing armies in the Colonies without their consent.

260. Assembly and Congress.—Gov. Martin of North Carolina dissolved three Legislatures in succession, and, to keep the people from appointing delegates to the Philadelphia Congress (1774), he resolved not to call the Assembly together during that year. When John Harvey, the speaker of the Assembly, heard this, he said, "Then the people will convene one themselves."

¹ The number of delegates present at this Congress was fifty-five; and the Colonies represented, twelve, Georgia being absent. Peyton Randolph of Virginia was elected president. Prominent members were George Washington, Patrick Henry, Richard Henry Lee, John Dickinson, William Livingston, John Jay, John Adams, Samuel Adams, Roger Sherman, Richard Caswell, John Rutledge, Edward Rutledge, and Christopher Gadsden.

Hand-bills were issued, and delegates elected. The governor was astounded, and forbade the delegates to assemble; but on Aug. 25, 1774, they met, and held the first Assembly in opposition to the Crown. After the First Continental Congress adjourned, the governor convened the Assembly, and on the same day John Harvey convened the Provincial Congress. The members of these bodies were the same men, with the same officers. For one half-day they sat as an Assembly under Gov. Martin, and the rest of the day as a Congress defying the governor. The governor dissolved the Assembly, but the Congress would not dissolve.

261. Bloodshed at Lexington.—The main body of the British troops was at Boston under Gen. Gage. Minute-men had been organized in the towns of New England and the other Colonies. Some of them had collected stores at Concord. Gen. Gage resolved to destroy these, and sent Col. Smith and Major Pitcairn with about a thousand regular soldiers to perform the task. The patriots in Boston hung two lights in the steeple of Christ Church, and notified the people in Charlestown that the English soldiers were moving. The English marched to Lexington, where about eighty American troops were gathered on the common. Pitcairn, at the head of the redcoats, shouted, "Disperse, you rebels! Lay down your arms!" The Americans replied, "We are on our own ground, doing no injury." The English soldiers fired, and seven American soldiers fell dead. Thus began the Revolutionary War, April 19, 1775.

262. Skirmish at Concord.—The British went on to Concord, where, after destroying a part of the stores, they were stopped by the Americans at Concord Bridge. A skirmish ensued, and several men were killed on each side. The regular British soldiers fell back, leaving the bridge in the hands of the Americans. They saw ominous signs of danger in the maddened people, and resolved to hurry into Boston. Everybody flew to arms. Boys and men gathered from all sides to avenge their countrymen. A



British soldier said, "It seemed as if men came down from the clouds." The provincials fired from behind trees, rocks, fences, and houses. Each volley brought down a row of proud grenadiers. The British quickened their march into a run, which never slackened till reënforcements met them at Lexington. Lord Percy met the retreating force at this place with a thousand choice troops, but did not make a stand. The retreat continued to Charlestown under a constantly increasing provincial fire. Benjamin Franklin has wittily described this retreat thus: "Gen.

Gage's troops made a most vigorous retreat,—twenty miles in three hours,—scarce to be paralleled in history. The feeble Americans who pelted them all the way could scarce keep up with them."

263. Result.—The Americans left their farms and homes, and with all kinds of weapons marched to Boston. Gen. Gage found himself shut up in the town except from the water side. The siege of Boston was begun. Soon sixteen thousand men were gathered round the city, digging trenches, and preparing to drive the British out.

264. Capture of Fort Ticonderoga.—The troubles between New York and Vermont were at white heat about this time. Ethan Allen and the Green Mountain Boys were in arms against New York sheriffs. Hearing of the fight at Concord, and being joined by Benedict Arnold from Connecticut, they turned their arms against Ticonderoga. They reached the fortress before day, and forced an entrance. Arriving at the commander's quarters, Allen demanded a surrender of the fortress at once. "By what authority?" asked the commander. "In the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress," exclaimed the vigorous Vermonter. Resistance was impossible, and the fort was surrendered (May 10, 1775) without the firing of a gun or the loss of a life. This was a fortunate affair for the Americans in another way. They needed guns and ammunition, and large quantities of these were found stored in this fort. In a short time Crown Point also fell into the hands of the Americans.

265. The News arrives in the South.—Couriers traveled day and night to New York, Philadelphia, Annapolis, Alexandria, Williamsburg, New Berne, Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah, carrying the bloody news of Lexington and Concord. It created everywhere a profound sensation. About a month after the tragedy at Lexington the news reached Charlotte, the modest capital of Mecklenburg County, far out in western North Carolina. A large number of the leading men of the county gathered

promptly at the call of Col. Polk, and passed (May, 1775) a series of resolutions, which has come to be known in history as the "Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence."

266. The Mecklenburg Resolutions set forth, that, inasmuch as the English King and Parliament had declared the American Colonies to be in a state of actual rebellion, all laws and commissions and civil constitutions which emanated from the King or Parliament are null and void, and should for the present be wholly suspended, and that the Congress of each province under the direction of the Continental Congress be invested with exclusive legislative and executive powers within their respective provinces. Then follow resolutions providing for the arming of the eight militia companies of the county, the purchase of ammunition, and for the internal government of the county until the Provincial Congress should otherwise direct, or Great Britain resign its unjust and arbitrary pretensions with respect to America.

Thus the county which Tarleton said was "more hostile to England than any in America" had declared itself free, and at the same time established a form of independent government for itself.

267. Second Continental Congress.—This body met in the State House (Independence Hall) at Philadelphia (May 10, 1775), and did some vigorous work. (1) It sent another address to the King, seeking a settlement of the difficulties. (2) It sent an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain. (3) It sent another address to Ireland. (4) Having done everything it could for peace, it then turned its energies to the following war-like measures: (*a*) it elected George Washington of Virginia commander in chief of the American armies; (*b*) it adopted the Articles of War; (*c*) it decided to raise twenty thousand men, and voted money to equip them for service.

268. The King refused to accept the address of Congress, and in a speech to Parliament informed that body that he was about to take more active measures to conquer the American

provinces then in rebellion. Parliament not only voted supplies, but arranged for the employment of foreign troops to whip the Americans. "Hessians," or mercenary soldiers of Europe, were to be paid to do what the regular British soldiers were not inclined to do. These measures cut off all hope of reconciliation with the mother country, and the alternative "independence or slavery" was thus forced upon the Americans.

CHAPTER XXVII.

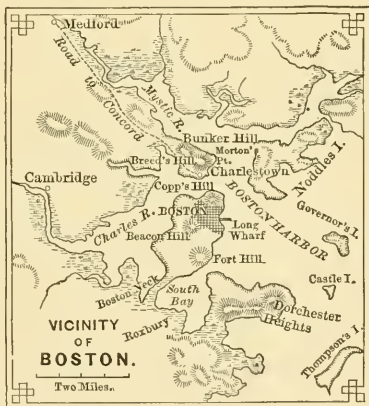
OPENING SCENES OF THE REVOLUTION.

Leading Events.

Bunker Hill (June, 1775).
Burning of Norfolk (Dec., 1775).
Moore's Creek, N.C. (Feb., 1776).

Evacuation of Boston (March, 1776)
Charleston, S.C. (June, 1776).
Independence declared (July, 1776).

269. Affairs about Boston.— Before Washington left Philadelphia to take command of the American Army before Boston, another battle was fought. Gens. Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne were sent over from England to reënforce Gen. Gage. Bunker Hill from the north, and Dorchester Heights from the south, overlooked Boston, and were selected by Gage as places to be fortified. The Americans also saw the strength of Bunker Hill, and sent a detachment of soldiers from Cambridge to Charlestown to begin the work of fortifying. Mistaking the hill in the night, they began their intrenchments on Breed's Hill. The British discovered the Americans on this commanding position at daylight, and began to bombard them. This was kept up until two o'clock in the afternoon without damage to the Americans.



270. Battle of Bunker Hill (June 17, 1775).— Gage saw that the Americans must be dislodged, or that he must leave Boston. He sent Howe with three thousand regular soldiers to

attack the Americans. He landed at Morton's Point, and started up the hill, as Burgoyne said, "in perfect order." Clinton, in the mean time, threw shells into Charlestown, and set it on fire. The hills all around were covered with people. The burning town, with burning church steeples high over the houses, made clouds of smoke, which, however, did not cover the charge. Up the hill marched Howe, while the shells from all sides poured in on the Americans with deadly effect. Powder was scarce on the American side; and the orders passed down the lines, "Don't fire till you see the whites of their eyes!"

When the British were near enough, the fire came, and with it death to the redcoats by whole ranks. Forming again, they pressed up a second time, only to be met by another tremendous discharge which forced them back. The provincials held their ground like old soldiers. Howe staggered on the left, and it looked as if the Americans had gained the day. Clinton saw the danger, and sent reënforcements. Up the hill they climbed again, led by the renowned Pigot.

By this time the ammunition of the Americans had given out, and they could oppose nothing to the enemy but the butt-end of their muskets and the rocks of the hillsides. They then gave back without confusion, doggedly disputing every inch of the way. The British held the hill, but the effect was equal to a victory for the Americans. They had made the British run, and the fear of their trained arms was partially broken. The British lost over a thousand men, and the Americans nearly five hundred, including the great soldier and patriot Gen. Warren.

271. Effect of the Battle.—This battle elevated the standing of the provincial soldiery. When Washington heard of the conduct of his soldiers, he remarked, "The liberties of the country are safe;" and Gage candidly said to the ministry, "The trials we have had show the rebels are not the despicable rabble too many have supposed them to be. In all their wars against the French they never showed so much conduct, attention, and perseverance as they do now."

272. Expedition against Quebec.—In July, 1775, Washington took command of the army before Boston. Gen. Richard Montgomery was ordered to proceed down Lake Champlain into Canada. He captured Fort Chambly, St. Johns, and Montreal before winter, and pushed on to Quebec, where he was joined by a detachment from Boston under Benedict Arnold, that had marched thither through the wilderness of Maine. On Dec. 31, in the midst of a snowstorm, these hardy Americans began the assault of rock-bound Quebec. They charged up the face of the steep rocks. Montgomery was almost halfway up when he was struck by a ball, and fell. Arnold was wounded; and the army, being without commanders, was forced to withdraw.

273. Burning of Norfolk.—Gov. Dunmore of Virginia attempted to arouse the slaves of Virginia to insurrection. A body of Scotch soldiery was met by the patriots of Virginia and North Carolina at Great Bridge, and defeated (Dec. 9, 1775). Dunmore was forced to take refuge on an English war ship. His last act of unsoldierly warfare was the burning of Norfolk (New Year's Day, 1776). Gov. Campbell of South Carolina had stirred up a Tory or loyalist insurrection in his province, which was speedily crushed by the militia regiments of North and South Carolina. This was termed the "Insurrection of Scovellites."

274. Battle of Moore's Creek.—Early in 1776 the English ministry beheld with dismay many royal governors issuing proclamations, and governing their provinces from the protected decks of English men-of-war many miles from shore. Gov. Martin of North Carolina issued a proclamation from the ocean, near the mouth of the Cape Fear, appointing Gen. Donald McDonald as commander in chief of the Tories of North Carolina. These Tories were made up principally of the Scotch Highlanders who fled to America after the defeat of the Pretender at Culloden. McDonald, with about fifteen hundred men, was met by Col. Caswell at Moore's Bridge on Feb. 27, 1776, and defeated. The fight lasted about an hour, and resulted in the death of the brave



Battle of Moore's Creek.

Col. Allan McLeod and thirty-four Highlanders, and the capture of eight hundred of the enemy, including Gen. McDonald. This was a signal victory, and broke the power of the Tories in the South. Cornwallis and Clinton landed at the mouth of the Cape Fear shortly after this, but sailed away without any demonstrations.



Naval Flag.

275. The Naval Flag.—In January, 1776, Congress adopted a flag for the American fleet. It bore the emblem of a rattlesnake with thirteen rattles in an attitude to strike, and the motto, "Don't tread on me."

276. Evacuation of Boston.—Early in March, 1776, Gen. Washington decided that the time had come to drive the enemy from Boston. He resolved to fortify Dorchester Heights, one of Burgoyne's strategic points; and, to divert the attention of Gen. Howe from the detachment which he sent there for this purpose, he bombarded the city for three nights. The following

morning the British discovered the Americans on the heights, and resolved at once to dislodge them. A severe storm kept Howe from advancing that day, and on the next the Americans had intrenched themselves so securely as to make a dislodgment impossible. But the British could not stay in Boston with the Americans on the heights, and they were therefore forced to evacuate. Howe gathered his army into his grand fleet, and sailed for Halifax. The evacuation was too sudden for Lord Howe to destroy all the stores or to spike all the guns. The guns on Bunker Hill were in excellent condition, and the stores captured in the city were a great help. Massachusetts had now no English soldier upon her soil, and was not troubled with the English Army during the remainder of the war.

277. The Attack on Charleston.—A British fleet of eleven vessels, under Sir Peter Parker, sailed from Halifax, carrying an army commanded by Gen. Clinton. It reached Charleston, S.C., and, after nearly a month's preparation, began an attack upon a fort on Sullivan's Island (June, 1776). The garrison, commanded by Col. William Moultrie, had few of the elements for a strong resistance excepting an unconquerable courage. Gen. Charles Lee, then in command of the Southern Army, said that the fort was in the wrong place; that the "officers were all boys, and the men raw recruits." Besides this, the ammunition was short. Nevertheless that fort gained an everlasting renown. Shot and shell poured down on it for twelve hours without intermission. The men fought with the greatest heroism.¹ The American loss was thirty-two men, while the enemy suffered a loss of two hundred and five, besides the terrible damage to the ships. During the

¹ While shot were flying thick around the fort, the flagstaff was cut, and the flag dropped outside the wall. A brave young sergeant, seeing this, leaped through an embrasure amidst the thickest fire, seized the flag, returned safely to the fort, and planted it on the bastion immediately in front of the enemy. This was Sergeant Jasper. Sergeant McDonald, as he went down to his death, exclaimed, "Don't let liberty expire with me to-day!" Men had their limbs torn away, and yet remained at their posts.

bombardment an effort was made by Clinton and Cornwallis to land on the east end of the island, so as to attack the fort on land and sea at the same time. Twice they attempted this with their "Regulars," only to be repulsed each time by the Virginian and Carolinian soldiers. At eleven o'clock at night the British passed beyond the bar, and the Americans enjoyed another victory.

278. The Declaration of Independence.—In June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee of Virginia startled the Continental Congress by the introduction of a resolution "that these United Colonies



Independence Hall.

are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States." The measure was discussed for many days, and care was taken to ascertain the sentiment of the different Colonial Assemblies and of the people. Finally, on July 4, 1776, Congress pressed the

resolution to a vote, and a declaration, drawn by Thomas Jefferson,¹ was adopted. This document cut off all ways of retreat, and was the boldest stroke that had been delivered by the Colonies. It was received with joy by the Americans, and with derision by the Parliament. The local assemblies ordered its reading in every country town; and this was always accompanied by the ringing of bells, by the firing of guns, by songs, and by patriotic speeches. The 4th of July, from that day to this, has always been considered the great American holiday. (The full text of the Declaration of Independence is inserted in the Appendix, and should be studied now.)

279. Reprisal.—For more than one hundred years England had attempted to keep all nations from trading with the Colonies. She desired and enjoyed a monopoly of their trade. Congress now turned the tables on her. The American ports were opened to all nations of the earth excepting Great Britain. American vessels were licensed to go upon the high seas, and attack and capture the merchant ships of the “Mistress of the Seas.” American privateers made the English commerce suffer a great deal, and three hundred and fifty British vessels were captured the first year. The Colonies had little to lose, and everything to gain. Congress also authorized Washington to employ friendly Indians in the capture of British officers and soldiers on the frontier.²

¹ The committee appointed to draft the Declaration of Independence—Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston—appointed Thomas Jefferson to prepare the paper. Only a few slight changes were made by committee and Congress.

² The defeat of the British at Fort Moultrie enabled Col. Rutherford of North Carolina, Col. Christian of Virginia, and Col. Jack of Georgia, to enter the Cherokee country, and to chastise the Indians so severely as to keep them peaceable during the remainder of the war.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

CAMPAIGN OF 1776.

Leading Events.

Long Island (Aug., 1776).

White Plains (Oct., 1776).

Retreat through Jersey (Nov., 1776).

Trenton (Dec., 1776).

Princeton (Jan., 1777).

Foreign Aid (1777).

280. Movements around New York.—As had been expected, the British now turned their arms against New York. The campaign around that city and through New Jersey demonstrated that a man of iron was needed at the head of the army,

and that the selection of Washington as commander in chief was the wisest move that Congress had made. For a time it took all of his ability to hold the patriots together. The sections were jealous of each other. Incompetent army officers were continually wrangling over precedence in rank. Private soldiers refused to obey orders on the miserable plea that they were "free and independent." Provisions, equipments, arms, and ammunition



were scarce. Volunteers went home at the expiration of their enlistments without leave. It looked as though the entire army would abandon the cause. Despite all these things, Wash-

ington never gave up. He was opposed by an army in perfect discipline. Its officers were illustrious, and its supplies unlimited. Admiral Richard Howe, brother of Sir William Howe, arrived at New York with reinforcements. The British Army was supported by four hundred ships and transports, ten ships of the line, and twenty frigates. Aside from the privateers, the Americans had no navy.

281. Battle of Long Island.—The two Howes believed that a single campaign would end the war. They began it on Aug. 27, 1776, by attacking the Americans on Long Island. Gen. Putnam had five thousand soldiers in the battle, one half of whom could not be made to stand. The British had twenty-five thousand. In this contest, had all the Americans fought equally well, the relative strength would have been five to one. The cowardice of some of the new regiments changed this proportion, and gave the Howes a strength of about ten to one. Of course, the Americans were defeated, but only after some most desperate fighting and the display of some remarkable heroism.

282. Retreat from Long Island.—During the fight, Washington crossed over from New York to Long Island, and by his genius and ability saved the army from capture. Howe was sure of taking the whole army, and everything pointed to his success. But Washington did not intend to be caught. On the night of the 29th he crossed the Sound with the greatest secrecy, and entered New York, losing but a single cannon. Gen. Nathanael Greene said that this retreat was the best effected of any of which he had ever read or heard. It saved the army, and taught Howe that he had a remarkably cautious, wary, and skillful antagonist. "This retreat is ranked among those skillful maneuvers which distinguish a master in the art of war."

283. Battle of Harlem Heights.—The New England Rangers and a Virginia regiment which had just arrived met the enemy at Harlem Heights, where a short yet glorious action occurred. Many of those who had disgracefully fled a few days

before, fought with heroism at this place. The commanders of the regiments fell, mortally wounded; but the men without field officers drove the larger force of the enemy from the field.

284. Battle of White Plains.— On Oct. 28 Howe attacked Washington at White Plains. The action was short but very severe. Each side lost about the same number. The Americans were driven behind their intrenchments, and the British went into camp. Washington changed his base during the night, and lodged himself more securely among the hills of North Castle.

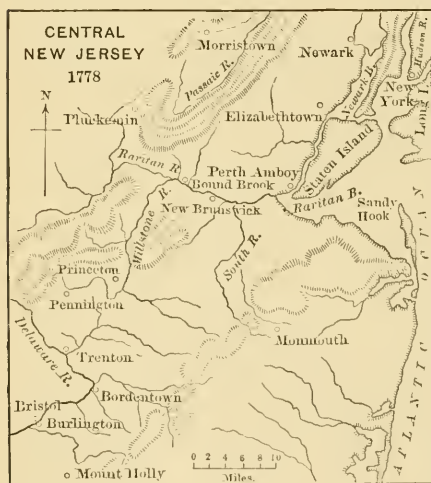
285. Fort Washington.— Leaving a part of the army under command of Gen. Charles Lee, Washington crossed the Hudson and proceeded to Fort Lee. Nearly opposite this fort, on the north end of Manhattan Island, stood Fort Washington. This was garrisoned by about two thousand Americans under Col.

Magaw of Pennsylvania.

The British assaulted this post on Nov. 16, and captured it at a cost of a thousand men. Washington, from the opposite side of the river, witnessed with deep distress the capture of his brave men, but was powerless to help. It was almost a deathblow to the American arms.

286. The Retreat through New Jersey.¹

Fort Lee was now in peril, as was the entire army; but Washington saw the danger, and avoided it. Gathering up his stores and ammunition, he



¹ Washington's extrication of the army from Long Island, and the retreat across New Jersey, were, from a military standpoint, superior to the two

again began the retreat. Howe sent Lord Cornwallis with a detachment of his best troops to pursue and capture, if possible. Washington ordered the troops at North Castle to join him,¹ and then marched slowly southward through New Jersey, closely pursued by Cornwallis. Early in December, Washington reached and crossed the Delaware River near Trenton, and, having secured all the boats within a hundred miles, he felt secure. Cornwallis had lost his prize, and, thinking the campaign over for the year, went into winter quarters at Princeton, Trenton, and other places in New Jersey. This long retreat, although conducted in a masterful way, discouraged the Americans. The army had poor clothing, and many of the soldiers marched with bare, bleeding feet over the frozen roads. The Tories of New Jersey called them "ragamuffins." The people of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and New York, were sadly demoralized, and many of them accepted the pardon offered by Howe. The spirit of resistance was almost extinguished. The enlistments were about to expire again, and the continued reverses tended to deter the reënlistments. But in spite of the people's despair, Washington did not lose hope.

287. Battle of Trenton.—Seeing that Howe had divided his forces and camped them in different towns, Washington resolved to begin offensive operations by striking a blow at one of these detachments. On Christmas night (1776), with twenty-four hundred men, he crossed the Delaware River despite the peril of the floating ice. The weather was intensely cold, and the wind was almost a gale. It was nearly daylight before he was ready to begin the hurried march to Trenton, nine miles distant. Almost frozen and but half clad, the army cheerfully

great retreats of history; viz., the retreat of the ten thousand Greeks conducted by Xenophon, and Napoleon's retreat from Moscow.

¹ Lee disregarded Washington's urgent commands to send forward these troops, which were sorely needed. When he did move, he acted so rashly as to involve himself in ruin. He took lodgings one night at Basking Ridge, N.J., three miles from camp, and was taken prisoner by a band of dragoons. His troops moved on, and effected a junction with Washington.

marched forward, facing a storm of hail and snow. Cornwallis had stationed Col. Rahl with a force of fifteen hundred Hessians at this place, and it was the purpose of Washington to surprise and capture them. At eight o'clock he reached Trenton without being discovered. The action was short and decisive. In thirty minutes nearly a thousand Hessians, with their guns in their hands, surrendered to Washington. The Americans had lost but



Washington crossing the Delaware.

four men,—two killed, and two frozen to death. Washington then hurriedly recrossed the Delaware with his prisoners and stores. This was the master stroke of the war. Its boldness was exceeded only by its brilliance. Cornwallis recoiled from its force with amazement. The Americans were electrified, and Washington became the hero of the hour.¹

¹ This was Washington's Christmas gift to his country. Von Bülow says, "The surprise of Trenton was for America what Thermopylæ was for Greece. This surprise is one of the best-planned and boldest-executed military movements of our century. It was, however, excelled by the attempt upon Princeton, and both events are sufficient to elevate a general to the temple of immortality, especially when, as in this case, he fights for the good of his country."

288. Washington outgenerals Cornwallis.— Crossing the river again, Washington took his stand at Trenton. Cornwallis, with a large force, reached this place on the night of the 2d of January, 1777, and encamped. He went to bed saying to his officers, "In the morning we will bag the fox;" and it did look that way. Behind Washington was the Delaware River, which could not be crossed. Before him was an army which he could not conquer in open battle. Yet the fox was not bagged. In the morning Washington's camp was there, but not his army. During the night he had got behind the British Army,—a maneuver which not only extricated his little force, but added glory to the American arms and to the American commander. He kindled all his campfires, and then withdrew by a circuitous route towards Princeton,¹ where a part of the British Army, on the way to join Cornwallis, was camping for the night.

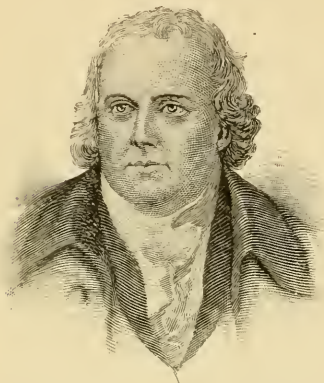
289. Battle of Princeton.— At daylight these troops were up and in line, ready to march for Trenton, when Washington's army confronted them. At the first charge the brave Gen. Mercer fell, mortally wounded. Washington then put himself at the head of the army, and amidst the hottest fire led it to victory. The enemy had more than a hundred killed, and lost about three hundred prisoners. The American loss was very small. Going on to Morristown, he intrenched himself so skillfully as to compel Howe to remain at Brunswick and Amboy, and to destroy his hopes of mastering the Jerseys that winter. This beating of Cornwallis at Princeton was considered a greater stroke than the affair at Trenton. The American people declared Washington the "saver of his country," and Europeans called him "The American Fabius."² Frederick the Great of Prussia said that the achievements of Washington and his little band during the six weeks

¹ Fortune favored Washington again. When the march began, the roads were soft with mud. A sudden change froze them as hard as pavements.

² Quintus Fabius Maximus, *Cunctator* ("the Lingerer"), was the Roman general who fought against Hannibal in the Second Punic War, and whose policy was to wear out his adversary by constant delay.

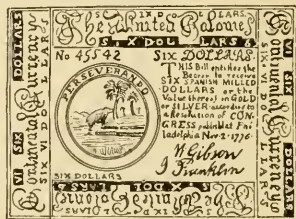
following Christmas were the most brilliant recorded on the pages of military history.

290. Robert Morris.—The paper money of Congress was not good. The soldiers would not receive it; and Washington wrote to Robert Morris of Philadelphia, that, in order to preserve his army, it was necessary for him to have some good money. Bounties had to be paid to induce reënlistments, and to hold for a few months more large numbers of the men who were now in arms. The private fortunes of Washington and some of the other officers had been pledged to secure means to meet other urgent needs of the army.



Robert Morris.

To meet this extraordinary demand, Washington urged Morris to raise fifty thousand dollars in gold, and to send it to him at once. On New Year's morning (1777) Morris started out to raise this enormous sum of money. He put in a very large sum himself, and then went from friend to friend until he had raised the whole amount. This he sent to Washington, and with it Washington held his army.¹

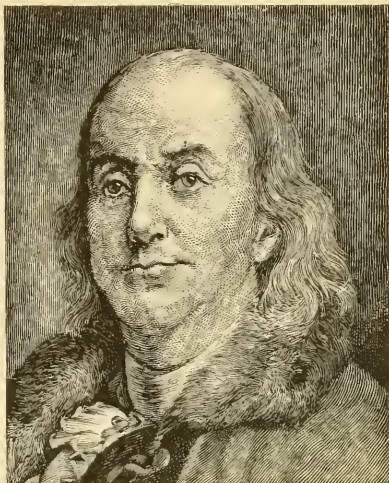


Continental Currency.

291. Foreign Aid.—Congress sent Benjamin Franklin (October, 1776), then over seventy years of age, to France to seek aid from that country. France was not willing to come to an

¹ The patriot Morris, after expending his fortune upon the American cause, was permitted by the United States to die in poverty. This will ever remain a disgrace to the American name. A monument erected to the name of Morris, exquisite in design and princely in proportions, should be built by the American Congress to erase this national shame.

open rupture with England, but was secretly in sympathy with the American cause. The French listened to Franklin with earnestness, and treated him as a hero. The Declaration of Independence was read as a choice document, and applauded. European officers and soldiers out of employment were led to join the American Army; some because they loved the theater of war, others because they loved liberty. Among the latter were DeKalb, Steuben, Kosciusko, Pulaski, and Lafayette. These men were soldiers trained in the best schools of European warfare. Steu-



Benjamin Franklin.

ben had fought under Frederick the Great. Lafayette gave his money, and then crossed the ocean and gave himself. These foreign recruits became the drill masters of the American armies, and soon turned these rough heroes into skilled soldiers (1777-78). Thus the loss to the Americans by the capture of Lee, and the discontent of Gates, Arnold, and others, was fully offset by the ability and patriotism of the foreign heroes that the God of battles sent to the American cause.

CHAPTER XXIX.

CAMPAIGN OF 1777.

Leading Events.

Burgoyne's March (July).
Walloomsac (Aug. 16).
Fort Stanwix (Aug. 6).
Surrender of Burgoyne (Oct. 17).

Brandywine (Sept. 11).
Occupation of Philadelphia (Sept. 26).
Valley Forge (December).
Aid from France.

292. The Stars and Stripes.— On the 14th of June, 1777, Congress adopted the stars and stripes as the national flag.



First American Flag.

293. The March of Burgoyne.— A British army from Canada under Gen. Burgoyne proceeded south until it reached Fort Ticonderoga on the south end of Lake Champlain. This fort was garrisoned by Gen. St. Clair with thirty-five hundred men, but was abandoned (July) at the approach of the enemy.¹ St. Clair united with Gen. Schuyler, his superior officer, and took stand near the mouth of the Mohawk.

294. Battle of Walloomsac and Sancoix Bridge.²— Burgoyne took possession of Ticonderoga and the stores left there

¹ To defend Fort Ticonderoga successfully would have required ten thousand men. Gen. St. Clair, although severely censured, acted the part of a judicious officer. The fate of Fort Washington's defenders was avoided, and, by abandoning a fort, St. Clair helped to save a State.

² Often called the "Battle of Bennington."

by St. Clair. In order to try the affections of the people, to disconcert the councils of the enemy, to obtain recruits and cattle, horses and carriages, he sent Col. Baum with a detachment of six hundred, and then Col. Breyman with eight hundred men, to raid the country to the Connecticut River, and march to Albany. Gen. John Stark and Col. Warner, with about two thousand men from New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, and New York, marched to meet them. They met Baum at the Walloomsac in New York, near Bennington, Aug. 16, and a successful battle was fought by the Americans. While Col. Baum was thus attacked, Col. Breyman approached Sancoix Bridge, two miles from the Walloomsac, where he was defeated. This was Burgoyne's first reverse.



Scene of Burgoyne's Invasion.

295. Fort Stanwix.—Another detachment of British and Indians, under Col. St. Leger, was sent from Lake Ontario to capture Fort Stanwix, the most western American post in New York. Gen. Herkimer, while advancing to the relief of this post, fell into an ambush (Aug. 6) at Oriskany, and lost about four hundred men. The fortress held out resolutely for several weeks, when the British, alarmed at the rumors of an overwhelming force coming against them, abandoned the siege. Gen. Arnold, who had spread the rumors, succeeded in capturing the tents and stores of the besiegers. This was Burgoyne's second reverse.

296. Surrender of Burgoyne.—Gen. Gates, through the importunity of Massachusetts, was appointed to the command of the American forces, and relieved Gen. Schuyler at once. On Sept. 19, 1777, Burgoyne attacked Gates in his camp, and maintained the struggle until night. Each side claimed the victory.

On Oct. 7 a second battle¹ was fought near the same place, and the British were defeated. Escape being hopeless, Burgoyne surrendered his entire army (Oct. 17), amounting to about six thousand men. This was his last and fatal reverse. Schuyler,



Arnold at Saratoga.

Lincoln, and especially Arnold and Morgan, were the real heroes of the battle. Thus one third of the British Army in America had been killed or captured in a single campaign, and a quantity of arms and stores fell into the hands of the impoverished patriots. As a result, the peace party in England were strengthened, and France determined to recognize American independence.

297. The Conway Cabal.—The victory over Burgoyne pushed Gates to the pinnacle of popularity. There was a strong faction in New England which was dissatisfied with Washington and all of his coadjutors. It worked secretly, and began by breaking down the characters of such generals as St. Clair,

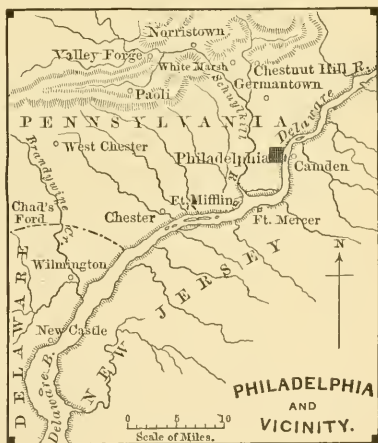
¹ Called the "Battle of Bemis Heights," or the "Battle of Stillwater," or the "Battle of Saratoga." This and the battle of Sept. 19 are sometimes called the "Two Battles of Saratoga;" sometimes, the "Two Battles of Stillwater."

Putnam, Schuyler, and Greene. It expected to be supported by popular outcry, and that the result would be the downfall of Washington and the elevation of Gates. A court-martial, however, acquitted St. Clair, Schuyler, and Putnam with the highest honor, and the name of Washington overpowered the intrigues of his enemies.

298. Battle of Brandywine.—Late in August, Gen. Howe landed his army at the head of Chesapeake Bay, and moved to Brandywine Creek, within a few miles of Philadelphia. Washington concentrated his forces at this point, and gave the British a hard fight, but without checking them. Cornwallis pushed on with a part of the army, and entered Philadelphia without opposition in September. Congress retired to York, beyond the Susquehanna, where, before the year passed, they framed and adopted the Articles of Confederation.

299. Germantown.—Lord Howe, with the main army, was posted at Germantown, and Washington resolved to strike another offensive blow. After an all-night's march, his troops were drawn up before the village of Germantown at daybreak (September). Gen. Wayne led the attack, which was one of the fiercest of the war. They carried everything before them; and the British were preparing to run, when, from some misunderstanding brought about by the dense fog, the Americans became alarmed, and retired before their conquered foes.

Howe now had complete possession of Philadelphia, and soon captured Forts Mercer and Mifflin on the Delaware. This gave



him control of the water approaches, and, so long as he remained in the city, he felt that Washington would not leave his strong position at Whitemarsh¹ to attack him.

300. Valley Forge.—In the middle of December (1777) Washington went into winter quarters at Valley Forge with his half-clothed and half-starved soldiers. The patriotism of the Americans is not to be judged by their sufferings upon the battlefield alone. Supplies could not be had for the worthless money that Congress was forced to use in payment of its debts. There was plenty of this, but nobody wanted it. The ready money of the British, the gold that had a “ring” to it, attracted the produce of the country to Philadelphia rather than to Valley Forge. The supplies which had been purchased for the army were not forwarded to camp, through the mismanagement of the Quartermasters’ Department, which was controlled by officers appointed by Congress through political influence. The soldiers had scant provisions, a few potatoes and some salt fish. The men flinched as their bleeding feet touched the harsh ground, yet they never murmured. Did not Washington and the other officers eat potatoes and herring? Was not the gentle wife of Washington undergoing the same ordeals when she might have been securely lodged in affluence at Mount Vernon? From these examples the common soldier took courage, and bore his miseries without complaint. Valley Forge will always stand for patriotic heroism wherever American history is read.

301. Baron Steuben came from the armies of Europe to offer his services to America. He was a drill master of the highest rank. He knew the value of discipline, and had the rare

¹ To a Quaker woman is to be ascribed the glory of saving the American Army at Whitemarsh. Lydia Darrah, at whose house in Philadelphia the council of war was held, overheard the plans of the British, and resolved to thwart them. On a plea of going to mill, she obtained a passport and went through the British lines. Then, by rapid riding, she reached Whitemarsh in time to apprise Washington of the attack. When the British came, instead of a surprised camp, they found the cannon mounted, and the soldiers in line of battle.

power of inducing others to desire it. The ragged American soldiery drilled each day under the command of Steuben. European tactics and training took the place of raw courage and undisciplined bravery. These men were never beaten by the British again when fighting with equal numbers.

302. Good News from France.—Then came the news that France had agreed to recognize the independence of America, and to help us with a fleet. Everybody was glad. War had been declared between England and France, and England sent commissioners to Congress, offering terms of peace. The right to tax America was disclaimed, but this came too late to satisfy Americans. Nothing short of absolute independence would satisfy their demands after the struggle already made.

CHAPTER XXX.

CAMPAIGNS OF 1778 AND 1779.

Leading Events.

Philadelphia regained (June, 1778).
Battle of Monmouth (June, 1778).
Massacres at Wyoming and Cherry
Valley (1778).

Campaign against New York Indians.
Fall of Savannah (Dec., 1778).
Naval Engagements (1779).
Gen. Lincoln in the South (1779).

303. Evacuation of Philadelphia.¹—The alliance between France and the United States induced Clinton, who had superseded Howe, to concentrate his troops at New York City. He evacuated Philadelphia in June, 1778, and Washington crossed into New Jersey to harass him as he marched northward.

304. Monmouth.—The armies met at Monmouth, and fought all through a long June day (the 28th). Gen. Lee, who had been exchanged, was in command, and, in defiance of his orders, was retreating. Washington, seeing the backward movement of his troops, galloped to the spot, and by his personal endeavors stopped the retreat, and turned the soldiers once more towards the enemy. Then, turning upon Lee, he administered a sharp rebuke, and ordered him to the rear.² Night came on, and under its mantle of darkness Clinton pursued his march to New York. Both sides had suffered severely, but the British loss exceeded that of the Americans. But for Lee, the

¹ It is said that the British Army lost over a thousand soldiers while in Philadelphia. The young Hessians would fall in love with the German girls of that neighborhood, and every marriage took a soldier from the ranks.

² Gen. Lee belonged to the Conway Cabal. He was tried by a court-martial for disobeying orders and speaking disrespectfully of Washington, and was suspended from duty for one year. He never recovered from his disgrace, and his fall so crippled the opposition to Washington as to render it ineffective. The downfall of Gates soon followed that of Lee.



Washington at Monmouth.

battle would have been an American victory ; but for Washington, it would have been a disastrous defeat. Washington saved the honor of the American arms, and destroyed the wicked cabal which had arrayed itself against him.

305. The Attack on Newport.—The British Army was now concentrated at New York City, and at Newport in Rhode Island. Early in July, Count d'Estaing arrived with a French fleet, and a combined land and sea attack upon the British at Newport was planned by Gen. Sullivan. About this time a British fleet appeared outside the harbor, and the French fleet sailed out to give fight. A great storm scattered the vessels in each fleet. The French commander then returned to the harbor, but immediately sailed for Boston for repairs. Sullivan attacked the enemy (August, 1778), and after some severe skirmishing drew off his army, and by great skill saved it from capture. The French fleet sailed for the West Indies, and did nothing more this year.

306. Wyoming and Cherry Valley Massacres.—Major Butler, a Tory of Niagara, with sixteen hundred Tories and

Indians, marched into the beautiful valley of Wyoming, in Pennsylvania. The able men were at the post of duty in the American Army; and none but women, old men, and children were there to defend the homes and the honor of the land. These fought long, but were without power to fight successfully. They surrendered upon honorable promises, only to be dishonorably butchered with the hatchet and the scalping knife (July, 1778). After this these marauders scattered through the valley, plundering, burning, and killing everything that came in their way. Joseph Brant the Mohawk, and Walter Butler, concocted another massacre for Cherry Valley, N.Y. They burned every house, tomahawked and scalped several women and children, and dragged the rest into captivity (November). This closely followed the destruction of Andrustown (July) and German Flats (August). The whole western frontier was alive with stories of butcheries, tortures, and barbarities.

307. Campaign against the Indians.—Washington decided (1779) to act vigorously against the Indian allies of the British. An army under Gen. Sullivan took up its line of march through unbroken forests into the very heart of the Indian country. They met the Tories and Indians at Newtown (now Elmira) in central New York, and routed them (Aug. 29). They then devastated the whole country around the lakes, destroying with ruthless hand the huts and crops. It is said that not enough was left to keep a child. The Indians looked with despair upon the waste, and went to Niagara. Their rule was completely overturned in New York, and no further trouble occurred. The expedition of Col. Broadhead up the Allegheny was a complete success, and broke the Indian control in western Pennsylvania.

308. Fall of Savannah.—The British ministry again determined to strike a blow from the South. Savannah was to be attacked from the sea by Col. Archibald Campbell and Commodore Parker, and by a large land force from Florida under Gen. Prevost. The fleet entered the Savannah River in Decem-

ber, 1778, and, after a battle in which the patriots were outnumbered three to one, the city was captured. The British then planted posts at Augusta and Ebenezer, and overran the whole State.¹

309. Battle of Kettle Creek.—Col. Boyd, with eight hundred Loyalists, was attacked (Feb. 14, 1779) by Cols. Pickens, Clarke, and Dooly at Kettle Creek, Ga., and after a desperate encounter was forced to fly. Col. Boyd was killed, and three hundred of his followers were slain or captured. Out of the general gloom in Georgia this battle shone like a star of hope; and the names of Pickens, Dooly, and Clarke became a terror to the Tories. Upper Georgia was wrested from their hands by the aroused patriots, and Augusta was evacuated by the British.

310. Battle of Brier Creek.—One of the most disgraceful routs of the war was the battle of Brier Creek, Ga. (March 3). The British general, Prevost, from a point in the rear, surprised the camp of Gen. Ashe, and threw the center and right wing of his army into flight, leaving the left wing, under Col. Elbert, to sustain the brunt of the battle. Elbert fought until every one of his command was killed, wounded, or captured.

311. Marauding Parties.—The year 1779 began with a marauding party up the Chesapeake, which destroyed a great deal of valuable property. Stony Point and Fort Lafayette on the Hudson were captured by the British under the leadership of Gen. Clinton. Gov. Tryon, formerly of North Carolina and New York, ravaged the coast of Connecticut, plundered New Haven, and burned Fairfield and Norwalk.

312. Recapture of Stony Point.—Washington determined to regain the fort at Stony Point, and sent Gen. Wayne, afterwards called "Mad Anthony" on account of his fearlessness, to accomplish the plan. At midnight (July 16, 1779), Wayne, at

¹ Gen. Prevost did not reach Savannah in time to participate in the action. He heard of the downfall of that city at Sunbury, and at once invested the latter city, and demanded its surrender. Major Lane held out for three days, when he surrendered.

the head of the Americans, climbed the steep ascent, and in thirty minutes had full possession of the fort and all of its stores. Washington Irving says of this, "The storming of Stony Point stands out in high relief as one of the most brilliant achievements of the war." Upon the approach of the British with a larger force, however, Wayne evacuated the position so gallantly won, to save the prisoners and stores he had captured.

313. Capture of Paulus Hook.—Major Henry Lee, popularly called "Light Horse Harry," at the head of three hundred brave men, surprised the British post at Paulus Hook (August),

and captured its garrison of a hundred and sixty defenders. Lee lost but two men. Thus the country was treated to "one of the most daring and insolent assaults to be found in records of chivalry."



"Bon Homme Richard" and "Serapis."

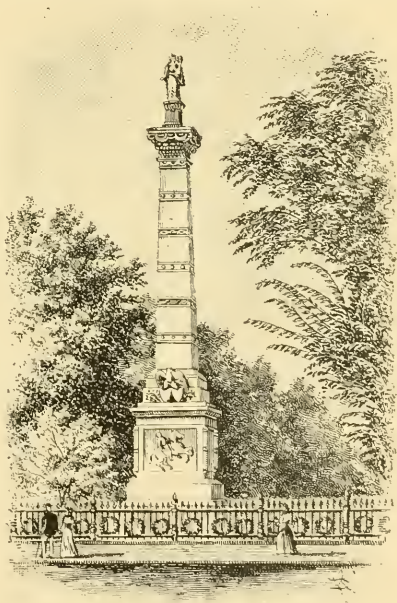
314. Naval Engagements.—The American Navy was small, but it managed during this year (1779) to do some effective work. The cruise of Commodore Paul Jones along the coast of Great Britain was a daring feat, and enabled many Englishmen to see the American flag who would never have done so under other circumstances.

His principal ship, the "Bon Homme Richard," made an audacious attack upon a large man-of-war, the "Serapis." In the

September moonlight the two vessels lay alongside, and poured hot shot into each other's sides from cannon muzzles almost touching. The crews on each ship fought like brave men, and the havoc was ruinous. The "Serapis" hauled down her colors and surrendered just as the "Bon Homme Richard" was ready to sink.

315. English War with Holland.—Jones sailed with his prizes into one of the ports of Holland, where he was treated as the representative of an independent power, and not as a "rebel and pirate," as the British ambassador demanded of the Dutch authorities. This was the beginning of an irritation between Holland and Great Britain which led to the English war with Holland. The British thereby gained another armed foe, which made it easier for the Americans to win.

316. Siege of Savannah.—A combined attack upon Savannah was planned by the Americans and French. Count d'Estaing was to leave the West Indies, and approach the city from the ocean, while Gen. Lincoln was to march overland. After a regular siege of two weeks, the besiegers became impatient, and, on the 9th of October, 1779, they made an assault. Three times the allied armies tried to take



Pulaski's Monument in Savannah.

the intrenchments, only to be driven back. The charge of the Carolinians and Georgians at Spring Hill was gallantly made, and

the colors were planted on the slope of the fort, but the murderous fire forced them back.¹ Count Pulaski, seeing an opening between the works, made a daring charge, which resulted in his death. The French fleet sailed for France, Lincoln went back to South Carolina, and the British held Georgia.

317. Close of 1779.—The British had Georgia, the southern part of New York, and a post on the Penobscot. All the balance of the country was free, but still the Americans were in great trouble. France had not done the good that had been expected; the restrictions upon trade almost destroyed it; the paper money had so depreciated in value as to be worthless; and Congress had no credit. The army was diminishing, while Parliament voted to send out a hundred and twenty thousand additional seamen and soldiers.

Washington went into winter quarters at Morristown, and suffered greatly for want of clothing and blankets. For three months the snow lay from two to three feet deep on the ground. Without meat at times, and almost frozen, the Americans resolved to fight on as they had begun. True heroes are those who, in spite of affliction, hold fast to their principles.

¹ Sergeant Jasper lost his life while gallantly carrying the colors presented to him by the ladies of Charleston.

CHAPTER XXXI.

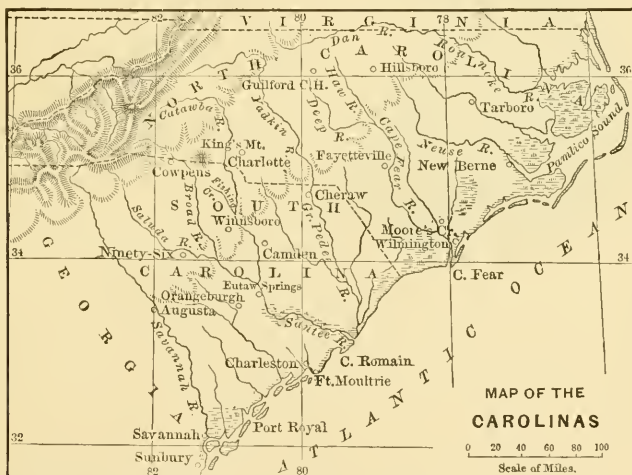
CAMPAIGN OF 1780.

Leading Events.

Fall of Charleston (May 12).
Gen. Francis Marion.
Camden (Aug. 16).

Fishing Creek (Aug. 18).
King's Mountain (Oct. 7).
Treason of Arnold.

318. Fall of Charleston.—Sir Henry Clinton resolved to try the second time to capture Charleston, S.C., and, after the departure of D'Estaing, he sailed with a large fleet from New York to this Southern metropolis. Gen. Lincoln, being reënforced from North Carolina and Virginia, fortified the city, and



awaited the assault. He did not wait long. Two hundred cannon shook the ramparts until the fortifications were destroyed. Then Gen. Lincoln surrendered (May 12) his whole army of five

thousand men as prisoners of war. This was a great disaster. By it North Carolina lost all her regular soldiers, and was left defenseless. It practically left the whole South to the British, with no regular army to oppose them.¹ Clinton put an army at Ninety-Six, another at Camden, and another at Augusta. He then issued a proclamation offering full pardon to every one who would swear allegiance to the Crown. Many people did this, but the greater number remained true to the American cause.

319. Marion, the Swamp Fox.—Small bands of backwoodsmen under Sumter did not let the enemy rest. Gen. Francis Marion gave the British continual trouble in the valleys of the Santee and Pedee. Sleeping in the woods and hiding in



Marion.

swamps, he and his "Ragged Regiment" watched for every favorable chance to cut off small detachments of the enemy, and to keep them in continual alarm. It was impossible to tell when or where the sword of Marion would fall. Col. Sumter² gathered up a band of Carolinians, and armed them with anything that a blacksmith could make out of a farming implement. Sometimes they had but three rounds of powder and shot to the man. At other

times those who had no guns would stand in the rear, waiting for some one in front to be killed, so that the place might be filled. Six hundred Whigs soon rallied to his call.

¹ Tarleton's Legion, after the capture of Charleston, intercepted Col. Buford and a company of Virginians at Waxhaw Settlement, and cut them to pieces while negotiating a surrender. This dastardly act was applauded by Parliament.

² At William's Plantation the British were caught in a lane by Sumter's forces, and, being unable to escape either way, were disgracefully routed.

320. Battle of Camden.—The hero of Bemis Heights, Gen. Gates, was now placed in command of the Southern Department. Lords Rawdon and Cornwallis took position at Camden, and Gates at Clermont, S.C. Each army acted on the plan of making a night attack upon the other. They met at Sander's Creek. Cornwallis and Gates were both surprised, and prepared to fight (Aug. 16, 1780). Had all parts of the American line stood, the victory would have been with Gates; but the untrained militia fled at the first fire, and the veterans could not maintain the unequal fight. The Maryland and Delaware troops fought with great bravery, but were compelled to retreat. Gates lost one thousand men, together with the brave Baron de Kalb, who, after eleven wounds, fell upon the ground made glorious by his daring. Gates retreated to Charlotte, N. C., where he was superseded by Gen. Nathanael Greene.

321. Fishing Creek.—Sumter's corps was attacked by Tarleton at Fishing Creek, and defeated (Aug. 18). This left no one but the "Swamp Fox" to dispute the possession of South Carolina with the enemy. Cornwallis then started north into North Carolina to end the war. He reached Charlotte, when the Americans under Davie and Graham gave him so much trouble as to lead him to call that city "The Hornet's Nest."¹

322. Battle of King's Mountain.—The governor of North Carolina appealed to the backwoodsmen in the Watauga Settlement, in what is now East Tennessee, to rally to the help of "Old North State." These brave mountaineers turned out to a man. Sevier, Shelby, Cleveland, McDowell, Campbell, and Williams, with nine hundred men in the saddle, set out to meet Col. Ferguson. On the summit of King's Mountain one of the most famous battles of the war was fought (Oct. 7). Ferguson

¹ At Ramsour's Mill the militia of North Carolina under Col. Locke charged the Tories, who outnumbered them three to one, and drove them from the field. Major Davie at Flat Rock and at Hanging Rock gave Tarleton's Legion a severe repulse. At Musgrove's Mill the militia of North Carolina gained a decided advantage.

was a soldier in every sense of the word. He had the advantage in numbers and in position. Still the tide went against him. Step by step he was pushed back by the unerring shots of the deadly rifles. At last he fell, and his followers laid down their



Battle of King's Mountain.

arms. Three hundred were dead, and six hundred surrendered. This was a bloody yet a glorious victory. Lord Cornwallis fell back to Winnsboro in South Carolina. King's Mountain was the turning-point¹ of the war in the South, and gave this afflicted region another year of preparation for the final achievements of Gen. Greene. Thus the heroes of Tennessee proved their right to participate in the glory of "The Old Thirteen."

323. The Treason of Benedict Arnold.— Paper money was plentiful and worthless; counterfeits of it had been spread throughout the country by the British; business was paralyzed, and dis-

¹ Bancroft says, "The victory of King's Mountain, which in the spirit of the American soldiers was like the rising at Concord, in its effect like the success at Bennington, changed the aspects of the war." Jefferson called it "the joyful turn of the tide."

tress was general. But worse than all this was the defection of Gen. Arnold. He had marched a hero through the woods of Maine to Quebec; he had fought bravely before that impregnable fortress; still later, at Saratoga, he had won his spurs anew. Everybody knew that he was brave, and the brave are always trusted. Washington trusted him, as did the whole country. West Point, an important fortress on the Hudson, was under his command. Here Arnold brooded over his real and imaginary grievances, and conceived the plan of betraying the post to the enemy.

324. The Capture of Major André.—To make the final arrangements, Major André was sent up the river by Gen. Clinton to confer with Gen. Arnold. The two met in a thicket near West Point, and completed the treason upon these terms: Arnold was to surrender West Point, its garrisons and stores; he was to receive nearly fifty thousand dollars in money, and a brigadier's commission in the English Army. During the interview an American battery had discovered a strange ship (the "Vulture") in the river, and had sent a shell in that direction. The "Vulture" dropped down the river, leaving André to return to New York by land. He crossed the Hudson to its east side, and passed the outposts safely. At Tarrytown three militia-men¹ stopped him, discovered that he was a British soldier, stripped him, and found the papers proving Arnold's treason. He was delivered to Col. Jameson at North Castle, who stupidly notified Arnold that André had been captured. Arnold escaped to New York City. André was tried as a spy by court-martial, condemned to death, and hanged (Oct. 2). His character was good. He died like a brave man, and Americans have always deprecated his fate. Washington offered Clinton an even exchange, —André for Arnold,—but was refused because Clinton had agreed to protect Arnold. Arnold passed the remainder of his life a disgraced man. He received what had been promised, but he never received an equivalent for his tarnished name.

¹ John Paulding, Isaac van Wart, and David Williams.

CHAPTER XXXII.

EVENTS WEST OF THE MOUNTAINS.

Leading Events.

Watauga Settlements (1769).
Lord Dunmore's War (1774).
Battle of Point Pleasant (1774).
Transylvania (1775).
Clark's Conquest of Illinois (1778).

Chickamauga Expedition (1779).
Cumberland Settlements (1779-80).
Bird's Kentucky Expedition (1780).
Erection of Fort Jefferson (1780).
Battle of Blue Licks (1782).

325. The Watauga Commonwealth.—After the Indian treaty at Fort Stanwix in 1768 (§ 238), emigrants from the older Colonies began to settle the ceded lands between the Ohio and the Tennessee Rivers. A settlement, now Abingdon, Va.,



John Sevier.

was planted on the head waters of the Holston; and shortly afterwards (1769) settlers also arrived on the Watauga, near Jonesboro, Tenn., which was then thought to be within Virginia. Among the latter were James Robertson and John Sevier, — men who were among the greatest of our pioneers, and who for thirty years were the leading spirits of the southwestern settlements. The following year (1770) Robertson brought his family over the mountains from North Carolina,

and with them came many of his neighbors who could not brave the oppression of the royal governor, Tryon. In 1771 the surveyor, Anthony Bledsoe, traced the Virginia boundary some distance westward, and it was discovered that Watauga came within

the limits of North Carolina. Being dissatisfied with the royal government of that Colony, the settlers promptly organized an independent government of their own. They adopted (1772) a written constitution, known as the "Articles of the Watauga Association," and for six years exercised all the rights of full statehood until the region was organized into Washington County, N.C. (1778).

326. The Long Hunters and the Surveyors.— For several years after the Pontiac war (1763) the settlers on the frontier were not troubled by any general Indian war. The traders told stories of the beautiful lands to the west abounding in game; and this begot an army of men too restless to watch the slow development of the soil, yet eager to see new lands and to kill new game. The beautiful valleys of Tennessee, Kentucky, and Ohio soon resounded with rifle shots from bands of hunters, as they eagerly pursued the bear, the elk, the deer, or the buffalo. Every bold, fearless, adventurous man wanted to become a backwoodsman; and over the mountains, in companies of from two to forty, they went, eager to see the great West. They were frequently absent for a year or more, and came to be known as the "Long Hunters." Daniel Boone was the most famous of these hunters.¹ Following them (1771–74) were parties of surveyors, who located lands that had been granted as bounties to the soldiers of the French-Indian war. Among these were John Floyd, the McAfees, and Washington.²



Daniel Boone.

¹ Daniel Boone, with a party of hunters, climbed to the top of the Cumberland Mountains, and entered Kentucky in 1769. There were also Simon Kenton, Harrod, Finley, Knox, Bledsoe, and others. They traversed Ohio, the Illinois Country, central Kentucky, and middle Tennessee. These men were pioneers of three States, — Tennessee, Kentucky, and Missouri.

² Washington located lands in northeastern Kentucky in 1770–72. Croghan had made a rude survey of the Ohio River as early as 1765.

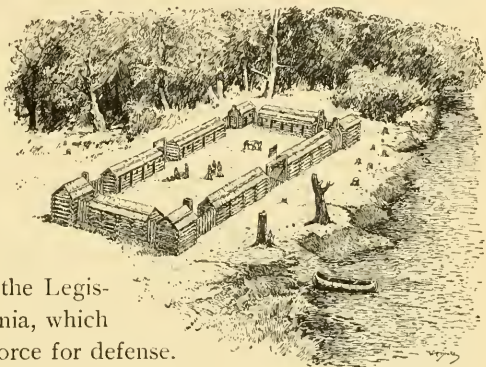
327. The Moravians in Ohio.—About this time (1771) the Moravian missionaries removed their Delaware Indian converts from eastern Pennsylvania to the Muskingum valley in Ohio, where they established the Indian villages of Schoenbrunn (“beautiful spring”), Salem, and Gnadenhütten (“tents of grace”). The Bible and the spelling-book were united here for the elevation of the Indians. The butchery (1782) of the Christian Indians at Gnadenhütten by American settlers is unparalleled for brutality.

328. Lord Dunmore’s War.—The Shawnees and other Indians grew restive at the gradual encroachment of the whites on their old hunting grounds, and their resentment culminated when a body of lawless men penetrated the forests of Ohio, and, near the present site of Steubenville, murdered the family of Logan, the great Indian chief and orator among the Mingoës. Logan laid aside his peaceful habits, and became the implacable enemy of the whites. A confederacy of the Shawnees, Delawares, Mingoës, Wyandottes, and Cayugas was formed (1774) to exterminate the white settlements west of the mountains. Cornstalk, the chief of the Shawnees, and king of the confederacy, was in command of the Indian forces. The settlers who had just founded Harrodsburg in Kentucky, and the hunters and surveyors, all hurried east to the older frontier; and Lord Dunmore, governor of Virginia, with an army of Virginians, marched over the mountains to subdue the savages. Dunmore took charge of the northern wing, and placed the southern wing under Gen. Andrew Lewis.

329. The Battle of Kanawha or Point Pleasant.—When Lewis reached the mouth of the Great Kanawha, upon the spot where Point Pleasant now is, he was attacked (October, 1774) by Cornstalk with a large body of Indians. For about five hours the battle raged with fearful energy, but resulted at last in the retreat of the Indians across the Ohio to their towns near Chillicothe, on the Scioto. Here they encountered Dunmore’s wing of the army; but they were so thoroughly subdued by their fight with Lewis, that a treaty of peace was quickly effected.

The battle of Kanawha was of peculiar advantage to the Colonies in the struggle with Great Britain, since it secured an interval of peace with the Indians, during which the settlements in Kentucky got a foothold, and these settlements served as a basis for Clark's conquest of the Illinois Country five years later.

330. Transylvania.—Shortly after the Dunmore war, Richard Henderson and Nathaniel Hart obtained from the Cherokees at Sycamore Shoals of the Watauga a cession of the region between the Kentucky and Cumberland Rivers. They named this region "Transylvania," and early in 1775 sent a party under Boone to blaze a road¹ through the wilderness from the Holston to the Kentucky. Before the end of the year Harrodsburg was reoccupied, and new settlements were founded at Boonesboro, Boiling Springs, and St. Asaph's or Logan's Station. Delegates from these settlements met, and organized the Legislature of Transylvania, which provided a militia force for defense. Gen. George Rogers Clark, then a young man fresh from Virginia, was placed in charge of these irregular troops. During the next year he went before the Legislature of Virginia, and had (1776) all of the Colony of Transylvania erected into the county of Kentucky.



Fort at Boonesboro.

331. The Cherokee War.—Incited by the Tories and British agents in the Southern Colonies, the Cherokees, in the summer

¹ This road was soon traversed by thousands of settlers, and is known as "Boone's Trace" or the "Wilderness Road."

of 1776, suddenly descended from their towns¹ upon the outlying settlements in the Tennessee valley, in North and South Carolina, and in Georgia, burning houses, stealing stock, and killing men, women, and children. The Watauga settlers were warned by a friendly squaw, and hurried into the fort, where, after a three-weeks' siege, the Indians were driven off. Other settlers collected at Eaton's Station, not far distant, and others defeated the savages in the battle of Island Flats. But east of the mountains, and especially in South Carolina, the settlers suffered severely before a force could be raised to check the attack. In the autumn, however, the militia organized, and, marching against the Cherokee strongholds from the north, east, and south, punished the Indians most severely, burning most of their towns, forcing some to remove westward to the Chickamauga region, and compelling the remainder to agree to a treaty of peace.

332. Clark's Conquest of the Illinois Country² (1778).—

Major George Rogers Clark, after establishing Kentucky as part of Virginia, and aiding its struggling settlements, looked about to ascertain a cause for the Indian atrocities occurring on the whole American frontier. Like Washington, he saw that these Indian movements were impelled by some outside force. He discovered that the British posts of Detroit, Kaskaskia, and St. Vincent's (Vincennes) were the centers from which the Indians obtained ammunition and arms to devastate the country. He resolved to take these forts. While in Virginia he asked and received from Gov. Patrick Henry a commission to



George Rogers Clark.

¹ The Cherokees lived in a number of "towns," or communities, among the high mountains of western North Carolina, on the head waters of the Hiwassee, Little Tennessee, and French Broad Rivers, and but a short distance south of the Watauga Settlements.

² The Illinois Country of the Spaniards was on both sides of the Mississippi. Kaskaskia and Cahokia were in western Illinois.

move against the Indians of the Far West.¹ With a company of Virginians gathered from the Holston, and three companies of Kentuckians, he started. At the Falls of the Ohio they stopped and built a fort on Corn Island. At the mouth of the Tennessee the party landed, and marched across the present State of Illinois to the old French fort Kaskaskia. Clark entered the fort through a postern which had been overlooked by the garrison, and so completely surprised the soldiers as to disarm them all without shedding a drop of blood. He pushed on, and captured the British post of Cahokia, where the French, as soon as they were made to know that France had acknowledged the independence of America, shouted for freedom and the Americans. Clark then marched against Fort St. Vincent, which, without the firing of a gun, surrendered, and the garrison took the oath of allegiance to the State of Virginia (July 16, 1778). The British governor, Hamilton, left Detroit, and recaptured Vincennes (December, 1778), only to be forced by Clark to surrender it a second time (February, 1779), and to yield himself a prisoner of war. The winter march of Clark from Kaskaskia to Vincennes through the swamps and swollen rivers was a remarkable achievement.

333. Shelby's Chickamauga Expedition.—A war party of Chickamaugas having started out against the Carolina frontier, Col. Evan Shelby, with a thousand picked men from the Holston and the Watauga Settlements, paddled down the Tennessee (April, 1779) to the homes of these Indians, and destroyed them and twenty thousand bushels of corn. This expedition, together with Clark's, broke the coalition that had been formed between the Northern and the Southern Indians.

334. The Cumberland Settlements.—James Robertson

¹ Clark had two sets of instructions from the governor of Virginia: (1) the public one was to proceed to the defense of Kentucky; (2) the secret set was to attack the British post of Kaskaskia. George Wythe, George Mason, and Thomas Jefferson agreed to use all their influence to obtain from the Legislature a bounty of three hundred acres of land for every person in the expedition. The county of Illinois was established by the Legislature of

visited the Great Bend of the Cumberland in the spring of 1779, and selected a place for a settlement at "French Lick," or the "Bluffs," on the present site of



James Robertson.

Nashville. He returned on Christmas Day with a number of settlers, overland, from the Watauga Settlements. Another and larger body of settlers, with the women and children, under the lead of John Donelson, came in boats down the Tennessee and up the Cumberland.¹ They reached their destination in safety in April, 1780, met Robertson's party, and founded the extreme western settlement of Nashboro,² where a government was organized.

335. Bird's Expedition into Kentucky.—In 1779 John Bowman led an expedition from Kentucky against the Indian town of Old Chillicothe, on the Scioto. It was driven back by the Indians. In 1780, however, Col. Bird, a British officer from Detroit, crossed the Ohio with a force of Canadians and Indians and several cannon. The idea of attacking palisades with cannon was new to Kentuckians, and resistance seemed useless. One fort was captured, and the expedition returned to Detroit with the garrison as prisoners.

336. Fort Jefferson.—Gov. Jefferson directed Col. Clark to establish a new fort on the Mississippi south of the Ohio. The fort was built (1780), and called Fort Jefferson. This

Virginia in October, 1778, and embraced all the chartered limits of Virginia north and west of the Ohio. Its eastern part was called the "Department of the Wabash."

¹ With this party was Donelson's daughter, Rachel, who afterwards became the wife of Andrew Jackson.

² It took the name "Nashville" in 1784.

was done to perfect the American boundary to the Mississippi, and to take it into actual possession. Our French allies had a plan to divide the region from the Alleghany Mountains to the Mississippi between Great Britain and Spain, the Ohio River being the division line; but this scheme to convert Kentucky and Tennessee into a Spanish province was thwarted in the beginning by this act of Jefferson.¹

337. Battle of Blue Licks.²—At Blue Licks (August, 1782) a bloody engagement resulted in the defeat of the Kentuckians by a concentrated attack of Indians led by two renegade white men,—McKee and Girty. Clark resolved to punish them, and, with a thousand mounted riflemen, he hurried to the Pickaway towns in Ohio, which the Indians deserted at his approach. From town to town he went, burning their huts, and destroying their corn. After this no combination of Indians assaulted Kentucky. Roving bands occasioned trouble now and then, but Clark's display of force had destroyed their power to combine.

¹ In a statement of American claims to the Mississippi Valley drawn by a committee of Congress (Oct. 17, 1780), the following facts were asserted: 1. "The United States had obtained possession of all the important posts on the Illinois and the Wabash, rescued the inhabitants from British dominion, and established civil government in its proper form over them." 2. "They have, moreover, established a post on a strong and commanding position near the mouth of the Ohio." Gov. Jefferson's instructions to Clark are dated June 28, 1778, and bear testimony to the far-seeing mind of the "Great Expander of the United States." The exploits of Gov. Galvez of Louisiana should not be overlooked. In September, 1779, with a force of Creoles and Acadians, he captured the British forts at Manchac, Baton Rouge, and Natchez. The next year he captured Mobile and Pensacola.

² Estill's defeat (March 22, 1782) near the site of Mount Sterling, Ky., was a most memorable skirmish. The battle-cry "Every man to his man, and each to his tree!" excited the valor of the backwoodsmen to fight to the death.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

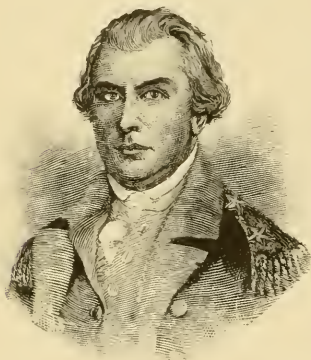
CAMPAIGN OF 1781.

Leading Events.

Battle of Cowpens (Jan. 17).
Retreat across North Carolina (Jan.).
Battle of Guilford C. H. (Mar. 15).
Siege of Ninety-Six (June).

Battle of Eutaw Springs (Sept. 8).
Surrender of Yorktown (Oct. 19).
Patriotism of Washington.
Treaty of Peace (Sept. 3, 1783).

338. Greene against Cornwallis.—The first act of Gen. Greene after taking command was to have a map drawn of the



Gen. Greene.

three large streams that cross the western part of North Carolina; viz., the Dan, the Yadkin, and the Catawba. To subsist his army and to drill it, he sent Kosciuszko to the head waters of the Pedee to select the "Camp of Repose." Here the army was made. Jealousies were healed, the sick nursed, the timid encouraged, and the whole mass welded into one body, moving under one control; namely, the will of

Gen. Greene. Here came the renowned Gen. Morgan and "Light Horse Harry" Lee.

339. Battle of Cowpens.—Morgan was at Cowpens, and his men were anxious to wipe out the disgrace of Camden. They demanded of Morgan that he should "lead them to victory." On Jan. 17 the victory came. When the opposing armies stood facing each other, Morgan made a speech to his men; and when the enemy crossed "the dead line," fifty yards away, he gave the deadly order, "Fire!" The British recoiled, but turned again

to charge with bayonets fixed. A second fire sent them back again, with the loss of their leaders. The third discharge ended the fight; and the British fled in confusion, with Col. Washington's cavalry in hot pursuit. The battle was a great disaster to Cornwallis. His death-roll at Cowpens exceeded that of any battle excepting King's Mountain.

340. Greene's Great Retreat across North Carolina.

Morgan hastily moved northward with his prisoners to unite with Gen. Greene. Cornwallis was so thunderstruck at the news of Cowpens, that he wasted twelve hours before starting to retrieve his loss. This gave Morgan a good chance to escape with the stores and prisoners. He reached the Catawba, and crossed, expecting to be closely pursued by Cornwallis, who was but twenty-five miles away (Jan. 23). For some unknown reason Cornwallis stopped two days at Ramsour's Mill before crossing. Morgan took advantage of this to rest his troops. Greene, having united with Morgan, took command; and then began the race for the fords of the Yadkin, which the Americans reached (Feb. 3) just as it began to rise from rains in the mountains. The van of the British Army appeared just as the last boat of the Americans had crossed. For four days Cornwallis fumed over the high water, while Greene complacently rested his men on the other side.

On the 9th Cornwallis crossed the Yadkin at Huntsville, and set out for the fords of the Dan. The lines of pursuit and retreat were nearly parallel and about twenty miles apart. Greene's main army crossed on the 13th, the next day the rear guard did the same, and the American Army was safe. Cornwallis, outwitted and crestfallen, withdrew to Hillsboro.



Gen. Morgan.

341. Battle of Guilford Court House.—In March, 1781, Greene recrossed the Dan, and took position at Guilford Court House, where he was attacked by Cornwallis. The action was severe, and Greene was forced to retreat. But it was not possible for Cornwallis to remain where he was, and in a short time he retreated to Wilmington, and thence to Virginia. The effect of Guilford Court House was to break up Cornwallis's plan in the South, and to change Washington's plans in the North. Greene lost the battle, but saved the campaign.

342. Down South.—All interest was now centered upon the Southern Army. Cornwallis had left the Carolinas, but Lord Rawdon was left in command. The forts at Augusta, Ninety-Six, and Camden relied upon Charleston for supplies. To stop these, Lee and Marion¹ were sent to the country between Charleston and Camden, Sumter was to watch the territory between Camden and Ninety-Six, while Pickens stood guard between Ninety-Six and Augusta. Greene had a way of seeing the whole field, and occupying it. Greene pursued the British to Hobkirk's Hill, where he was attacked and defeated by Lord Rawdon (April 25). The loss on each side was about the same. Lee and Marion captured Wright's Bluff on the Santee (April 26); and, as this cut the communication to Charleston, Rawdon was forced to leave Camden, and to fall back to Eutaw Springs.

343. Ninety-Six.—Greene stationed his forces before the strong post of Ninety-Six (May 22), and held the place in a state

¹ Marion was feared by Cornwallis more than any other American. A British officer, while attending to some matter of business with him, was invited to remain for dinner. The officer accepted the invitation, glad to see more of the man who entertained with grace and dignity combined. The meal was simple, and served with greater simplicity. The colored servant brought baked potatoes on waiters made of bark. Surprised at this, the officer said, "Surely, general, this is not your ordinary fare."—"Indeed it is," replied Marion, "but, having to-day the honor of your company, we are so happy as to have more than our usual allowance." It is said that the officer returned to Charleston and resigned his commission, saying that it would be impossible to conquer men who fought for nothing, and went without food and clothes.

of siege for four weeks, when, hearing that Rawdon was on the way with reënforcements, he made an attack. It was a grand charge, but it failed. Greene retreated; but in a short time the British evacuated the post, and the Americans took possession.

344. Eutaw Springs.—Col. Stewart, having superseded Lord Rawdon, was attacked at Eutaw Springs by Gen. Greene (Sept. 8). The battle raged fiercely for several hours, and was terminated by the withdrawal of Greene. During the night Col. Stewart silently led his troops into Charleston. This ended Greene's campaign. He had driven the British from the interior of North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. New York City, Yorktown, Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah were the only places under control of the English Army. Everybody felt that the end was near. The Southern Army, with clothes in tatters, without meat and without money, had finished its work with honor to itself and with glory to the country.

345. Surrender of Yorktown.—Clinton directed Cornwallis to proceed to Norfolk, and to fortify the place. Washington appeared to be massing his forces for an attack upon New York, and Clinton prepared to meet him. The French fleet was already in Chesapeake Bay, and Washington's plan was to block the mouth of York River with this fleet, place a land force upon the peninsula behind



Map showing Position of Troops around Yorktown.

Yorktown, and make it impossible for Cornwallis to escape. Having misled Clinton as to his intentions, he marched rapidly southward to the head of Chesapeake Bay, where he embarked upon the French ships, and was landed near Williamsburg. Count de Grasse, with the French fleet of twenty-four ships of the line, appeared in the bay, and landed three thousand French soldiers to aid Lafayette, who had been placed in charge of the troops around Yorktown. Washington's force united with this, and the siege began. After eight days he began his bombardment of the place, which lasted eight days. Then came the assault, which gave the outer works to Washington. Cornwallis resolved to cross York River, cut his way through the army, and join Clinton; but the wind and waves made it impossible to cross the York, and there was now no escape. On the 19th of October, 1781, the surrender followed. Thus ended the career of Cornwallis. Thus ended the Revolution.

346. The News.—Although the British still held several cities, the general belief was that the war was over; and it really was. The news reached Philadelphia that night at midnight. A watchman, walking the streets, cried, "Past two o'clock, and Cornwallis is taken!" This awakened the city, and shouts of joy were heard on all sides. Congress marched with proper solemnity to church, where fervent thanks were given to the Ruler of the universe for the successful issue of the war. The House of Commons reversed its procedure of so many years, and declared that any one advising a continuance of the war was an enemy to the country.

347. Washington's Patriotism.—The failure of the States to pay the soldiers led a great many of them to believe that the only way to remedy these evils was to create a strong monarchy in America, and they offered to make Washington king. Washington spurned the proposition, saying, "If I am not deceived in the knowledge of myself, you could not have found a person to whom your schemes could be more disagreeable."

348. Provisional Treaty of Peace.—In July of the next year (1782) Savannah was evacuated, and in December the British left Charleston. At Versailles (November, 1782) the independence of the United States was acknowledged in a provisional treaty.¹ On April 17, 1783, nearly eight years after the battle of Lexington, Washington was ordered to proclaim a cessation of hostilities, and to disband the army.² The final treaty was signed at Paris on Sept. 3, 1783, and the last of the British troops left America on the 25th of November. Washington, in a very touching address, said farewell to the army he loved, and started homeward. Stopping at Annapolis, he resigned his commission to Congress.³ On Christmas Eve Washington reached his delightful Potomac home, Mount Vernon, and began anew his private life, cultivating the affections of good men, and practicing the domestic virtues.



Map of United States in 1783.

¹ The commissioners were John Oswald for England; and John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and Henry Laurens, for the United States.

² The country was as much indebted to Washington for the dissolution of the army as for his military services. The qualities of self-control exhibited by him during this terrible ordeal place him above any military chieftain that ever lived. "He said to the angry elements of discord, 'Be still,' and they obeyed his voice."

³ The President of Congress, upon taking the commission of Washington, said, "You retire from the theater of action with the blessings of your fellow-citizens; but the glory of your virtues will not terminate with your military command, it will continue to animate remotest ages."

CHAPTER XXXIV.

STATE AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

Leading Events.

State Constitutions (1776, 1777).
The Articles of Confederation (1777).
The Western Lands (1781).

Weakness of the Confederation.
The Constitution (1787).
The First Election (1789).

349. State Constitutions.—Soon after the Colonies went to war with the King, and declared their independence of him, they adopted State constitutions. These were simply written statements, adopted by the people, defining what the branches of government should be, and how they should be conducted. The people had been working under charters before. These charters came from the King, and recognized him as the source of authority. The constitutions, however, were made by the people, and recognized all authority as springing from them, as had been set forth in the Declaration. From this time on, the people elected their own officers, and made their own laws. South Carolina, led by Drayton and Gadsden, passed the first State constitution, and during the year 1776 six other States followed this example. Four more followed by 1783, leaving Connecticut and Rhode Island to plod on under their old charters. These two, however, were among the most liberal ever granted by the King, and were in reality little different from the constitutions adopted by the people.

350. The Articles of Confederation.—As each Colony had been separate and distinct from all the others, so was each of the new States. The right of each State to manage its own affairs independent of control by the other States was always claimed. The only modification of this was brought about by the weak-

ness of the States when contending singly against an enemy. Then the need of a common power, speaking for all and binding all, was found to be necessary. By common agreement they gave to the Continental Congress the right to create armies, and to provide for the defense of their common rights. Congress drew up the Articles of Confederation, and, in November, 1777, urged the States to adopt them. These articles defined the powers which should belong to Congress, and gave the country a new name, "The United States of America." The States were supreme in all local matters; the United States, in all matters delegated to it by the States. The States were careful from the beginning not to centralize too much power in the Congress.

351. The Western Lands.— By May, 1779, the Articles of Confederation had been adopted by all the States save Maryland. The refusal of Maryland to accede grew out of the dispute over the lands in the great West. Virginia claimed them by charter right, and by right of conquest under George Rogers Clark. They were also claimed by New York by right of cession from the Indians. Connecticut and Massachusetts claimed that parts of these lands were covered by their charters. Maryland argued that these lands were the common property of the United States, and refused to enter the Confederation unless this claim should be recognized. Her idea was, that, if the claims of the larger States were allowed, the weaker States would be at a disadvantage. Congress recommended that each State cede its lands to the United States; and Virginia, being desirous of the Union marked out by the articles, very generously offered to cede to the United States (Jan. 2, 1781) all her great and just claim to the territory northwest of the Ohio River, which was afterwards organized into the Territory of the Northwest. The other States did as Virginia had done; but Connecticut reserved a certain part of her Ohio lands to create a school fund, and to reimburse her citizens for losses by Tory raids. Maryland then signed the Articles of Confederation (March 1, 1781), and the new nation was legally born.

352. The Weakness of the Confederation.— Washington, more than any other man, knew the weakness of the Articles of Confederation. He had seen Congress fail in 1779, 1780, and 1781, to raise troops: Congress could solicit troops, but could not directly enlist them. He had seen Congress fail to provide means to pay the army: it could make requisitions on the States, but it could not collect. He had seen Congress fail to control the currency: it could advise, but not regulate. He had seen the inability of Congress to enforce its own decrees: it could pass laws, but could not enforce them. He had been forced to rely upon the States for troops; and when they came, they felt that they owed allegiance to the State, and not to him. He had seen each State issuing paper money until two hundred million dollars in paper were worth only five million in silver.¹

There were four fatal defects in the Confederation: (1) a two-thirds majority of all the States was required to pass a law in Congress; (2) Congress had no power to enforce its own laws; (3) each State was left free to fix its own customhouse duties irrespective of the others; (4) a unanimous vote of all the States was required to amend or change the Articles of Confederation. Many men besides Washington recognized these defects; but the vague fear of a strong Federal government was so great, that a change was effected with the utmost difficulty.

353. The Annapolis Meeting.— At the suggestion of Maryland, Virginia issued invitations to all the States to attend a meeting and discuss a uniform system of legislation on the subject of trade. Five States² only accepted Virginia's invitation, and met at Annapolis (Sept. 11, 1786). The only result of the meeting was an address asking Congress to call a convention at Philadelphia, "to devise provision to render the Constitution of the Federal Government adequate to the exigencies of the Union." Congress refused to call this convention.

¹ The salary of a major-general would not pay an express rider; that of a captain would not purchase a pair of shoes.

² Virginia, Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York.

354. The Country drifting towards Anarchy.—Congress itself attempted to amend the Articles of Confederation, and establish a uniform system of revenue; but New York refused to consent, and so the attempt failed. Meanwhile, to relieve the pressure of debt, Rhode Island and other States had issued paper money, and tried to enforce its circulation by law; but merchants closed their shops, and business came to a standstill. In Massachusetts the farmers favored paper money, but the Legislature refused to issue it, and voted funds to Congress instead. This led to an insurrection in that State (1786–87) known as Shays's Rebellion, which was quelled by the State militia, but only after the loss of many lives, and the destruction and pillage of much property. There was also rioting and bloodshed in New Hampshire and Vermont. To these disorders was added a quarrel with Spain respecting the southwestern boundary and the free navigation of the Mississippi. The United States claimed south to the 31st parallel, while Spain claimed north to the mouth of the Yazoo. Spain held New Orleans and Natchez, and threatened to close the navigation of the Mississippi at the latter place. The far Northern States were willing to yield the claims of Spain, but the Southern States and the Western settlements took a juster view of the value of the Mississippi, and absolutely refused to accede. There were threats of secession in both New England and Kentucky if their respective views were not adopted. All these troubles threatened the Union, and made people see that some action to strengthen the government was imperative.

355. The Constitutional Convention.—Despite the refusal of Congress, James Madison urged the Legislature of Virginia (November, 1786) to invite the States to meet in Philadelphia. The Legislature did so, and selected delegates, with Washington at their head, to represent Virginia. Congress yielded; the day was set; and the other States, Rhode Island alone excepted, selected delegates. In May, 1787, the convention met, and shortly after, as the delegates continued to arrive, twelve States were represented. Washington was elected president of the con-



Constitutional Convention.

vention; and after four months the Constitution of the United States was submitted for adoption.¹

356. Ratification of the Constitution.—This document was discussed as no other paper had ever been before. Patriots were for it, and patriots were against it. Every lover of America felt that the paper was in the right direction; but, while some thought it gave too much power to the United States Government, others were of opinion that it did not make the central government strong enough.² Men who had contested their rights inch by inch with Parliament did not choose to make another Parliament at home with stronger powers. In Virginia the contest was severe. Many of the best men of the age opposed it, but the influence of Washington outweighed them all. He was the center of power in Virginia and in the whole country. State after State registered its verdict, and in less than a year the Constitution was ratified by all but North Carolina and Rhode Island. Although backed by Pinckney, Morris, Madison, Franklin, Hamilton, Livingston, Adams, and others, the master spirit of the work was George Washington, who thus from his peaceful home became first in peace, as he had already become first in war, and first in the hearts of his countrymen.

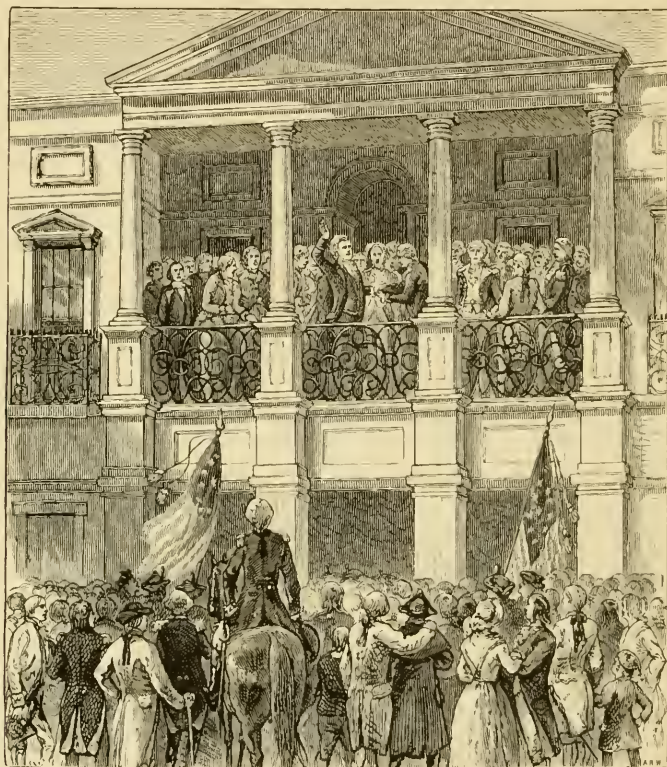
357. The Constitution.—The Federal Constitution met three ends: (1) that the government should be strong enough to preserve peace at home, and to make itself respected abroad; (2) that local self-government should be maintained in every part of the Union; and (3) that there should be absolute free trade between the States.

An examination of the Constitution will show how wise and prudent our fathers were. The small States contended that every State should have equal power in the General Government, while the larger ones demanded that all officers should be elected

¹ Mark the caution: (1) the Constitution was submitted to Congress, and then to a convention of delegates in each State; (2) the delegates were to be chosen by the people; (3) nine States were required to make it operative.

² The latter were called "Federalists;" the former, "Antifederalists."

by a majority of the people. The Constitution blended both ideas into an harmonious unity. To protect the small States, an equal vote was given to each of them in the Senate. Delaware, the least populous State, was made equal in senatorial power to



Inauguration of Washington.

Virginia or Massachusetts. The power and importance of the larger States were preserved by making the representation in the lower House depend upon the population.

Delegated Powers.—The Constitution is an enumeration of the powers of the United States as defined by the States and dele-

gated to the United States. These are, (1) to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, and to pay the debts of the United States; (2) to borrow money; (3) to regulate commerce between the States and with foreign nations; (4) naturalization; (5) to coin money; (6) to establish post offices and post roads; (7) to grant copyrights and patents; (8) to declare war; (9) to raise armies and navies.

The Reserved Powers.—All powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, were reserved to the States.¹

Local self-government was carefully guarded in this the first Federal Constitution ever adopted by any people. The great difficulty has been to rightly distinguish these great principles; and the study of Americans should be to know (1) the delegated powers, (2) the prohibited powers, and (3) the reserved powers.²

(The Constitution, in the Appendix, should be read now).

358. The First Election.—On the first Wednesday in January, 1789, the first election was held under the Constitution; and shortly after this the electors met, and by a unanimous vote selected George Washington as the first President of the United States. John Adams of Massachusetts was elected Vice-President.

359. The Inauguration.—The seat of government was now at New York, and to this place Washington turned his course. In New Jersey troops of beautiful girls, dressed in white, scattered flowers along his way. Each country road became a crowded thoroughfare. The very places where he had undergone the greatest suffering now swelled with efforts to make him glad. Before a surging crowd in the street, with crowds all around, on house tops and in windows, Washington took the oath of office on the open balcony of the Federal Hall.

¹ No State was required to adopt the Constitution; but, the instant the adoption was made, that State surrendered all control of the enumerated powers.

² The implied powers are such as are necessary to enforce the delegated powers.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE WEST, AND STATE EDUCATION.

Leading Topics.

The Ordinance of 1787.
Prosperity of the Northwest.
Land Surveys.

State of Franklin.
Public Land Grants.
State Universities.

360. The Ordinance of 1787.—The only really great act of the old Congress under the Articles of Confederation was the passage of the Ordinance of 1787 for the government of the territory northwest of the Ohio, that had been ceded by the States. Several of its articles have become famous. The third article declared, that, as religion, morality, and knowledge are necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall ever be encouraged, and good faith observed towards the Indians. This was a new principle in government, and had remarkable influence in attracting settlers. The sixth article prohibited slavery within the territory. Legislative interference with private contracts was prohibited.

361. Prosperity of the Northwest.—Gen. Arthur St. Clair was appointed governor of the Northwest Territory in 1789, and took up his residence at Marietta, the oldest town in Ohio.¹ As to Kentucky and Tennessee, so to Ohio, went a large number of vigorous settlers, principally from Virginia and the Eastern States. Out of the Northwest Territory were afterwards formed the five great States, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin.

362. Government System of Land Survey.—In May, 1785, Congress passed an ordinance for ascertaining the mode of disposing of lands in the Western territory. Thomas Hutchins,

¹ Founded by Gen. Putnam in 1788.

geographer of the United States, with a corps of surveyors appointed by Congress from the several States, entered the territory, and, according to the instructions of Congress, began to divide the area into townships of six miles square by lines running due north and south, and by others crossing these at right angles. The townships were to be numbered from north to south, and the ranges of townships progressively westward. Each township was subdivided into thirty-six sections, each one mile square. Since then this method has become the system of land survey of the United States.¹ A certain portion of the Ohio survey was reserved for bounties to the Continental soldiers. The region between the Little Miami and the Scioto was reserved by Virginia for her own soldiers.²

363. The State of Franklin (1784–88).—After the battle of King's Mountain the "Over Hill" Country became famous, and attracted immigration. Hither were led by Gen. Elijah Clarke the women and children of Tory-ridden Georgia. A hard-fought battle was won over the Cherokees at Boyd's Creek, and their country desolated around Hiwassee. Four counties were formed, and settlements were numerous. In August, 1784, delegates from three counties — Washington, Sullivan, and Greene — met at Jonesboro and declared themselves free and independent of North Carolina. In November, 1785, a constitution was adopted, and the name "State of Franklin"³ given to the East Tennessee country. John Sevier was elected governor.

¹ This system is called the "rectangular system." A congressional committee headed by Thomas Jefferson reported this act (1784) with townships ten miles square. Mr. Grayson of Virginia moved to reduce to six, which was carried. Mr. Jefferson is considered the author of the rectangular system, and Mr. Grayson of the present size of townships.

² Congress gave a major-general 1,100 acres; a brigadier, 850; a colonel, 500; a lieutenant-colonel, 450; a major, 400; a captain, 300; a lieutenant, 200; an ensign, 150; and a soldier, 100. These bounties peopled Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee with the heroes of the older Colonies.

³ The taxes of this new State were payable in flax linen, tow linen, linsey, beaver skins, tallow, beeswax, rye whisky, peach or apple brandy, country-made sugar, and tobacco. Salaries were paid with these articles.

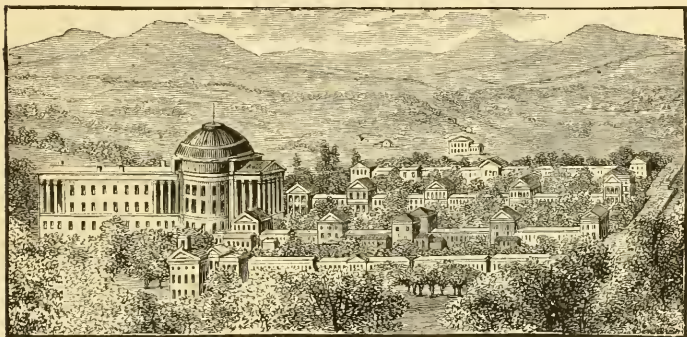
364. Dissolution of the State of Franklin.—North Carolina, having repealed her cession of lands to the United States, was not disposed to let her Western children erect a new State, and commanded the officers of the State of Franklin to disband. Seven counties were now in existence, and they preferred the new State to North Carolina. Two governments sprang up in each county,—the one elected by those who desired the new State, the other by those who remained loyal to North Carolina. Each man had the option to pay his taxes to either government, and for a while two different governments in the same territory ran smoothly. But in 1788 the government of North Carolina was recognized, and Franklin ceased to be a State.

365. Early Schools.—The grammar schools of New England, South Carolina, and other Colonies were not free public schools, but were American copies of the “great public schools” of Rugby, Eton, and Harrow. The colleges Harvard, William and Mary, Yale, Columbia, and Dartmouth were classical colleges fashioned after the older ones of Europe. With small endowments and in a new country, there was no chance for them to be self-supporting. The colonial governments aided them by revenue raised by taxation.

366. Education in the Hands of the Church.—In the Dutch and Swedish Colonies education was given into the hands of the Church, which in turn was a State institution. Here the preacher and the schoolmaster were the same person. The Church was the schoolhouse. The Quakers supported schools as church and private enterprises. In the more populous communities of New England, schools flourished better than in the more sparsely settled regions of the South, though the sentiment towards them was of the most favorable kind in both sections. The great idea of the early schools was the moral elevation of society, and the support of religion. In each college, theology was taught, and the spread of the Gospel was an important point in the teaching of every school.

367. Separation from the Church.—After the Declaration of Independence the religious idea of education became less, and the political idea more, prominent. As the Church receded, and separated from the State, it failed to carry with it the right and duty of educating. The value of citizenship became of supreme importance, and the right and duty of State education sprang into existence.

368. Jefferson and Education.—Thomas Jefferson, in 1775, began the discussion of the political phase which education soon assumed in America, and which it has never relinquished. He argued for, and asked Virginians to establish, a system of education in which the State divorced from the Church should be the



University of Virginia.

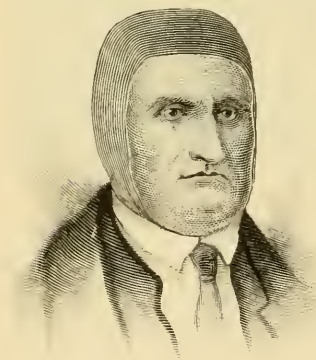
chief factor. He set out the following plan: (1) a system created, regulated, and supported by the State; (2) a system comprehending all men as citizens, and designed to foster that relation; (3) a system with three great divisions: (*a*) the university, (*b*) the high schools, (*c*) the "ward" or district schools. All of these were to be supported by the taxed wealth of the country, and were to comprise the whole need of the citizen from the primary school to the university. The University of Virginia was the result of this agitation.

369. Public Land Grants.—In 1785 Congress set apart one section in every township in the Western territory, the proceeds from the sale of which were to be devoted to the maintenance of public schools; and before this Virginia granted thousands of acres in Kentucky for the support of schools.

370. State Universities.—The State idea of education was ingrafted into the Constitution of Pennsylvania during the war. North Carolina followed with a like constitutional requirement. The State University became the pride of the people. Georgia came next (1777), and established county schools to be supported by the State. In 1784 the University of Georgia was established. Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina followed in rapid succession. Independent State action upon educational matters reached its earliest and highest development in this group of States. Their universities represent the people's higher education, and are created, controlled, and supported by the States.

371. Education in the West.—One of the first acts of the Legislature of Franklin was to provide for Martin Academy,

which was founded by Samuel Doak in 1785, and was the first school west of the Alleghanies. It afterwards became Washington College. In Kentucky, Transylvania University was begun as Transylvania Academy in 1785, and exercised a remarkable influence by its library, its lectures, and its professors, upon the whole Western country. In the same year Davidson Academy was founded at Nashville, Tenn.;



Samuel Doak.

and Blount College at Knoxville, Tenn., was organized by the Legislature of the Southwest Territory in 1794. Ohio University at Athens, O., was established in 1804.

Leading Battles and Commanders of the Revolution.

YEAR.	WHERE FOUGHT.	COMMANDERS.	
		AMERICAN.	BRITISH.
1775....	{ Lexington. Ticonderoga. Bunker Hill. Quebec. Fort Moultrie.	Parker. Allen. Prescott. Montgomery. Moultrie.	Smith and Pitcairn. DeLaplace. Howe and Clinton. Clinton. Clinton and Sir Peter Parker.
1776....	{ Long Island. White Plains. Fort Washington. Trenton. Princeton. Ticonderoga. Oriskany and Fort Stanwix.	Putnam. McDougall. Magaw. Washington. Washington. St. Clair. Gen. Herkimer.	Howe and Clinton. Howe. Howe. Rahl. Mawhood. Burgoyne. St. Leger.
1777....	{ Bennington. Bennington. Brandywine. Stillwater. Germantown. Saratoga. Fort Mercer. Monmouth. Rhode Island.	Stark. Williams. Washington. Gates. Washington. Gates. Col. Greene. Washington. Sullivan.	Baum. Breyman. Howe. Burgoyne. Howe. Burgoyne. Donop. Clinton. Pigot.
1778....	{ Wyoming. Cherry Valley. Savannah. Sunbury. Kettle Creek. Brier Creek.	Zeb. Butler. Robert Howe. Lane. Pickens. Ashe.	John Butler. Brant. Campbell. Prevost. Boyd. Prevost.
1779....	{ Stony Point. Paulus Hook. Savannah. Charleston.	Wayne. Lee. Lincoln. Lincoln.	Johnson. Sutherland. Prevost. Clinton.
1780....	{ Camden. Fishing Creek. King's Mountain. Cowpens. Guilford Court House. Hobkirk's Hill.	Gates. Sumter. Campbell. Morgan. Greene. Greene.	Cornwallis. Tarleton. Ferguson. Tarleton. Cornwallis. Rawdon.
1781....	{ Ninety-Six. Eutaw Springs. Yorktown.	Greene. Greene. Washington and De Grasse.	Brown. Stewart. Cornwallis.

Leading Persons of the Revolution.

Gen. Smallwood.	Gen. Putnam.	Gen. Stark.
Gen. Ward.	Ethan Allen.	Patrick Henry.
Samuel Adams.	James Otis.	Gen. Gage.
Gen. Williams.	Washington.	John Adams.
Sergeant Jasper.	Gen. Sumner.	Gen. Moore.
Count Pulaski.	Baron Steuben.	Baron DeKalb.
Gen. Gates.	Lafayette.	Gen. Howe.
Cornwallis.	Gen. Burgoyne.	Robert Morris.
Col. Prescott.	King George III.	Joseph Warren.
Rochambeau.	Gen. Sumter.	Kosciusko.
Sir H. Clinton.	Benjamin Franklin.	Gen. Greene.
Anthony Wayne.	Major André.	Benedict Arnold.
Marion.	Gen. Lee.	Paul Jones.
Gen. Pickens.	Light Horse Harry Lee.	Gen. Morgan.
George Rogers Clark.	Gen. Clarke.	John Sevier.

Leading Places.

Watauga.	Ninety-Six.	King's Mountain.
Concord.	Trenton.	Ticonderoga.
Philadelphia.	Lexington.	Charlestown.
Valley Forge.	New York.	Boston.
Bennington.	Princeton.	Germantown.
Transylvania.	Brandywine.	Saratoga.
Monmouth.	Bemis Heights.	Northwest Territory.
Stony Point.	Cowpens.	Charleston.
Yorktown.	Mount Vernon.	Savannah.
Point Pleasant.	West Point.	Guilford Court House.
Eutaw Springs.	Charlotte.	Moore's Bridge.

Leading Topics.

Washington's retreat through New Jersey.	Sullivan's Indian Expedition.
Greene's famous retreat.	Beginning of the War.
Causes of the Revolution.	The Declaration of Independence.
	Expedition of George Clark.
From Brandywine to Yorktown.	

PART VI.—RISE OF THE REPUBLIC.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION, TWO TERMS (1789-97).

Leading Events.

Personnel.

Tariff for Revenue.

Ten Amendments to the Constitution.

First Census (1790).

U. S. Bank and Mint (1791-92).

The New Capitol (1793).

The Genet Affair (1794).

The Whisky Insurrection (1794).

Indian Wars in Ohio.

The Four Treaties (1795).

Three New States (1791, 1792, 1796).

The Cotton-gin (1792).

372. The Personnel of the Administration.— Few governments ever started with better men in charge of affairs than the new Republic. During the first year, Washington¹ selected a

¹ George Washington was born in Virginia, Feb. 22, 1732, and died at Mount Vernon, Dec. 14, 1799. His birthday is one of the great American holidays. As a boy he was noted for his love of athletic sports and as a distinguished horseman. He was scrupulously clean in person and dress, and his school work was a model of accuracy and neatness. He was especially distinguished for punctuality and truthfulness. During his eleventh year his father died, and his training devolved upon his mother. Her nobility of character impressed itself upon the son, and gained for her his lifelong love and care. In the whole history of mankind there will be found few men more worthy of admiration than he. His talents were not of the highest order, yet they were admirably balanced and adjusted with each other. His life was controlled by the loftiest moral principles, and his will was modeled after the highest heroic ideals. He truly merited the title "Father of his Country." Jefferson said of him, "His integrity was the most pure, his justice the most inflexible, I have ever known; no motives of interest or consanguinity, of friendship or hatred, being able to bias his decision. He was indeed, in every sense of the word, a wise, a good, and a great man."

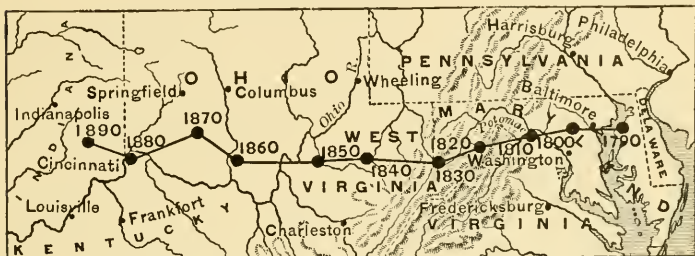
cabinet¹ of four eminent persons to aid him in the discharge of his duties. He chose men who, though differing in political principles, were ready to do anything to promote the general welfare. The first cabinet was Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, secretary of state; Alexander Hamilton of New York, secretary of the treasury; Henry Knox of Massachusetts, secretary of war; Edmund Randolph of Virginia, attorney-general. The Supreme Court was composed of John Jay of New York, John Rutledge of South Carolina, William Cushing of Massachusetts, Robert H. Harrison of Maryland, James Wilson of Pennsylvania, and John Blair of Virginia. The speaker of the House of Representatives was Frederick Mühlenberg of Pennsylvania; and the president of the Senate was John Adams of Massachusetts, the Vice-President of the United States.

373. Tariff for Revenue.—The country was heavily in debt, and the attention of Congress was first directed to this matter, and the means to raise money to pay it off. A tonnage duty was placed upon ships, and a tariff upon the foreign goods, entering our ports, the amount of these revenues being designed to meet the pressing needs of the treasury. This tax soon placed money in the treasury.

374. Ten Amendments to the Constitution (see Appendix).—The opposers of the Constitution were vigilant, and, to cure the defects of that instrument, amendments to the Constitution were proposed, ten of which were adopted. By this action the objections of North Carolina and Rhode Island were removed, and before the end of May, 1790, they had ratified the Constitution.

¹ At the beginning of each administration it is lawful for the President to select the following heads of departments who form the President's "cabinet:" (1) secretary of state, (2) secretary of the treasury, (3) secretary of war, (4) secretary of the navy, (5) postmaster-general, (6) attorney-general, (7) secretary of the interior, and (8) secretary of agriculture. The first three and the sixth began with Washington's administration; the fourth was created during John Adams's administration; the fifth, in Jackson's; the seventh, in Polk's; and the eighth, in Cleveland's first administration.

375. The First Census.—The first enumeration (1790) showed that the new country had a population of a little less than four million people. In 1890, one hundred years afterwards, the eleventh census was taken, and showed a population of a little less than sixty-three million. The significance of these figures, when compared with our weak beginning, is startling.



Map showing Westward Movement of Center of Population in United States, 1790-1890.

The total population of Great Britain and Ireland in 1891 was a little less than thirty-eight million; of France, a little more than thirty-eight million; and of Germany, nearly fifty million. Thus America has outstripped each of the great European nations, and has now about one half the population of the three.

376. The United States Bank and Mint.—The United States Bank was organized in 1791, and was located in Philadelphia, together with the Mint, which was established the following year. These gave the people a money that was equally good in every State. This was of great importance to the business interests of the whole country.

377. The New Capitol.—By agreement the seat of government was to remain at New York until 1790, when it was to be taken to Philadelphia, there to remain until 1800, when it was to be finally located in a new city on the Potomac. Washington selected the site for this city, which was named in his honor, and laid the corner stone for the Capitol in 1793.

378. The Genet Affair.—The French Revolution plunged

Europe into an uproar. The King of France had been beheaded, and a republic set up on the ruins of the monarchy. Marquis de Lafayette was one of the trusted leaders of the popular party. England declared war against the French Republic in the interest of kingly government. In America these conditions produced a strong sentiment that it was the duty of the United States to help France.

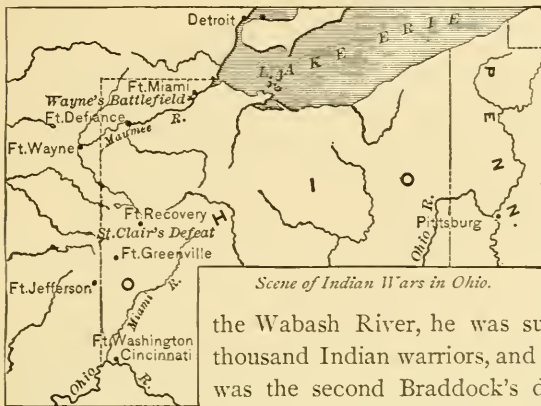
At this juncture (1794) "Citizen" Genet appeared in America as minister from the French Republic. He came to stimulate the spirit of gratitude which he knew was extant, and to obtain aid from this country. Washington, however, refused to be dragged into a war of disaster, and issued a proclamation commanding Americans to maintain a neutral position between the contending parties. Genet then became excited, and attempted to raise a mob to put Washington out of office. He also began with unparalleled insolence to fit out privateers in American ports. But he made a great mistake. Washington stigmatized the conduct of the minister as "an insult to the country," and upon his demand Genet was promptly recalled.

379. The Whisky Insurrection.— Out in western Pennsylvania a number of distillers refused to pay the tax which Congress had placed upon whisky. They arose in arms (1794) and drove away the collectors. Washington sent "Light Horse Harry" Lee into that region with a force sufficient to maintain the law. Long before he reached the scene of disorder the rioters dispersed, and law and order became supreme.

380. Indian Wars in Ohio.— Fort Washington, on the present site of Cincinnati,¹ had been made the capital of the Northwest Territory, and the Indians residing there had relinquished their claims. But other tribes claimed the same region, and went to war to gain possession of it. Kentucky was called on for troops, and sent several hundred soldiers commanded by Col.

¹ First called Losantiville (1789).

Hardin. Gen. Harmar started for the Maumee country with over a thousand troops (1790). Col. Hardin was ambushed near Fort Wayne, losing many men; and Harmar was defeated at Maumee Ford by Little Turtle and his allies. In 1791 St. Clair,



with a large force of Kentuckians and Northwesterners, set out to break up the Miami Confederacy. Reaching the head waters of

Scene of Indian Wars in Ohio.

the Wabash River, he was surprised by two thousand Indian warriors, and defeated. This was the second Braddock's defeat. With a still greater force, Gen. Anthony Wayne marched into the Miami country on the Maumee River, determined to strike a vigorous blow. The Kentuckians were again called to the front, and marched to the Maumee Rapids, where the Indians were in council. Wayne's offer of peace was rejected, and a battle was fought (Aug. 20, 1794) in which Wayne was entirely successful.

381. Wayne's Treaty with the Indians.—The treaty of peace at Greenville (1795), which followed Gen. Wayne's victory at Maumee Rapids, gave the United States the southern half of the present State of Ohio, and released all Indian claims to Kentucky. This treaty was kept until 1812.

382. Jay's Treaty with England.—In November, 1793, George III. issued secret instructions to British privateers to seize all neutral vessels found trading in the French West Indies. Before the United States was apprised of this high-handed measure, the British privateers had injured American commerce to the

extent of many millions of dollars. The war feeling ran high, especially in the Western country. Jay negotiated a treaty (ratified in 1795) which averted a war. By this treaty Great Britain agreed to pay all damages done by the privateers, and to abandon certain Western posts.

383. Treaty with Spain.— This treaty (1795) opened the Mississippi River to American navigation, and determined the boundaries between the United States and Florida and Louisiana. The Mississippi River had been a bone of contention for some time. The Spaniards at New Madrid exacted toll from boats navigating this stream, and it was rumored that a treaty had been made granting this power to Spaniards. It made an uproar, and an independent government for Americans was discussed in the Southwest. The treaty prevented all forcible action, and prepared the way for the final purchase of this whole region.



Algerine Pirates.

384. Treaty with Algiers.— We were not so fortunate with Algiers. The pirates of this country lived by plundering the

merchant ships of the world. Exemption could be purchased by the payment of tribute; and, as we had no navy to maintain the dignity of our flag, we agreed (1795) to pay an annual tribute to the Dey of Algiers to leave our ships untouched.

385. Vermont.—The territory included in the present State of Vermont was never a Colony, but has a distinct colonial history. Prior to 1765 it was understood in England and America that this territory was a part of the province of New Hampshire. As early as 1749 the governor of New Hampshire began to grant lands west of the Connecticut River. In 1764 New York set up a claim to the Connecticut River, and granted the lands to other men. The New York purchasers brought suits in New York to put the settlers claiming from New Hampshire off the lands, and the court decided in their favor.¹ The New Hampshire settlers refused to vacate, and organized an armed opposition to the enforcement of the decrees of the New York court. Three conventions of the people were held in 1776–77: (1) at Dorset, petitioning Congress to recognize them as belonging to New Hampshire, and not to New York; (2) at Westminster, declaring the territory to be a new and separate State; (3) at Windsor, naming the State “Vermont.”² In a short time a constitution was adopted which excluded slavery from the territory; and on March 4, 1791, Congress admitted Vermont into the Union, the first State added to the “Old Thirteen,” or, as the popular saying ran, “The Fourteenth Star.”

¹ When Ira Allen was told of this decree, and advised to make terms with the claimants, he replied, “No, the gods of the valley are not the gods of the hills.” He soon gathered a strong body of men, and it was agreed “to punish with death whoever should attempt to enforce the decree.” The governor of New York, hearing of this, threatened to drive them into the Green Mountains, whence the Vermonters came to be called “The Green Mountain Boys.” The battle of Concord found them in arms, and turned their anger from New York to Ticonderoga.

² The Westminster Convention adopted the name “New Connecticut;” but a district in Pennsylvania was found to have this name, and “Vermont” was then chosen.

386. Kentucky.—From 1785 to 1792 Kentucky knocked at the door of Congress, asking to be admitted to the Union. Eight conventions in Kentucky agreed upon the measure, and five Acts of the Virginia Legislature consented to the separation. In 1792 she was admitted into the Union as the fifteenth State, with Isaac Shelby, one of the heroes of King's Mountain, as the first governor. Flourishing towns were in existence at Harrodsburg (settled in 1774), Boonesboro (1775), Lexington (1779), Danville, Maysville, and Louisville. Virginia had made large grants of lands to her soldiers in Kentucky, and the population in 1790 was about seventy-five thousand.

387. Tennessee.—North Carolina ceded her Western lands, in 1790, to the United States, and the old State of Franklin became a part of the Territory south of the Ohio, which Congress erected. Settlements dotted the whole East Tennessee valley, and had lapped far out into the Middle Tennessee region, even to Nashville and Clarksville. With about seventy thousand



Isaac Shelby.

people, hardy, brave, and energetic, the State of Tennessee entered the Union in 1796, and was enrolled as the sixteenth State. The three names most prominent in the early history of Tennessee are John Sevier, Isaac Shelby, and James Robertson. Tennessee existed as (1) the Watauga Association (1769-77), (2) part of North Carolina (1777-84), (3) the State of Franklin (1784-88), (4) part of North Carolina (1788-90), (5) Territory south

of the Ohio (1790-96), and (6) the State of Tennessee (1796 to the present time).

388. The Cotton-gin.—The year 1792 will always be famous for the greatest invention ever made in America. This was the cotton-gin. It was invented by Eli Whitney of Massachu-

setts, and could clean every day about a thousand times as much cotton as could be cleaned under the old process. This was a labor-saving triumph, and determined to a large extent the occupations in two great regions of country,—in the South, where raw cotton was produced; and in New England and New York, where cotton goods were manufactured. By this means cotton became king.¹

389. The Close of Washington's Second Term.— During the entire administration of Washington, party spirit ran high. Jefferson had become the leader of the Republican (since called the Democratic) party, and Hamilton of the other (the Federal). Jefferson attacked with great power the financial measures of Hamilton, and Hamilton retorted with an attack upon Jefferson's management of foreign relations. The two parties were nearly equal in numbers, and were bitterly opposed to each other. It took all of Washington's tact to prevent an open rupture; yet, strange to say, both political parties united upon him for the second term, and would have chosen him for the third term had he not refused to have the position. The House of Representatives had a majority against the views of the President, and yet at all times most cheerfully supported his measures. Jefferson said that Washington outweighed them all in influence over the people.

¹ In 1860 the yield of cotton was nearly five million bales per annum. In 1890 it reached the enormous figure of eight and a half million bales.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION (1797-1801).

Leading Events.

Troubles with France (1797-1800).
Alien and Sedition Laws (1798).

Death of Washington (1799).
The New Capital (1800).

390. Presidential Election.—The Republican (Democratic) party supported Thomas Jefferson of Virginia for the presidency; and the Federalists, John Adams¹ of Massachusetts. Adams was chosen by three electoral votes; and, as Jefferson had the next highest number, he became the Vice-President.



John Adams.

391. Troubles with France.—

The doctrine of neutrality maintained by the United States gave offense to the French Directory, and orders were given to French men-of-war to attack our merchant vessels and destroy our commerce. This was a declaration of war. Adams called Congress together, and commissioners were sent to France to adjust the trouble. The French refused to receive them, and through secret agents demanded of the commissioners a large sum of money. Pinckney indignantly replied, "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute." The commissioners were ordered to leave France. Men who had been urging an alliance with

¹ John Adams was born in Braintree, Mass., in 1735, and died in 1826. Jefferson said of him that he was the ablest advocate and champion of independence in the Congress of 1776. He aided in the negotiation of the treaty of Paris, and was the first American minister to England.

France as a matter of gratitude now clamored for action to maintain American honor. Washington was made lieutenant-general and commander in chief of the American Army, and the country again prepared for war. The navy was strengthened, and privateers were sent out to make reprisals upon French merchantmen. Commodore Truxton, with the ship "Constellation," attacked (Feb. 9, 1799) a French man-of-war, the "Insurgent," in the West Indies, and won. In another desperate battle he defeated the frigate "La Vengeance." In the mean time Napoleon Bonaparte had overthrown the French Directory, and he at once made peace with America.

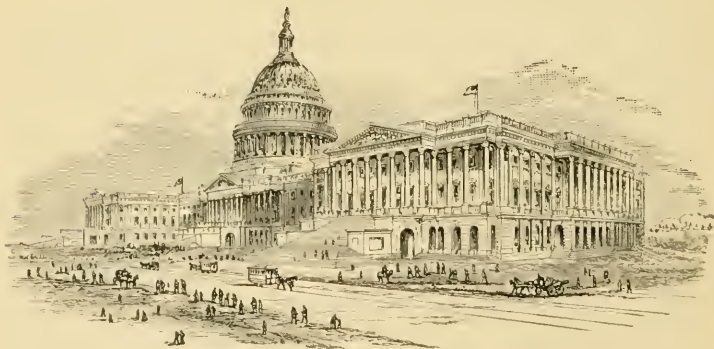
392. The Alien and Sedition Laws.—Violent attacks on the government by the friends and emissaries of France brought about (1798) the passage of two laws which became obnoxious to the country, and destroyed the Federalist party. The first, the Alien Law, permitted the President to send out of the country any alien he regarded as dangerous to the peace of the country; the second, the Sedition Law, gave him power to fine and imprison persons who used the freedom of speech or the freedom of the press to attack the government. The Republican (Democratic) party at once denounced the laws, claiming that they were directed at them, and not at the friends of France. They argued that the laws were an assumption of power not in harmony with the Constitution, and that they should be declared unconstitutional. A libelous free press is less dangerous to a country than a censorship in the hands of the ruling powers.

393. Death of Washington.—On Saturday night, Dec. 14, 1799, Washington died at Mount Vernon. The whole country mourned his loss. Napoleon Bonaparte directed the flags of the French Republic to be draped with crape. The British fleet at Torbay displayed its colors at half-mast. Napoleon, Chatham, Erskine, and Grattan paid tributes to his exalted worth. John Marshall of Virginia pronounced the sentiment of Americans, and it remains unchanged after more than a hundred years.

He said, "No man has ever appeared upon the theater of public action whose integrity was more incorruptible, or whose principles were more perfectly free from the contamination of selfish and unworthy passions. His ends were always upright, and his means were always pure." A monument to his memory has been reared in Washington City by a grateful country.

394. Washington City.—In 1800 Congress held its first session at Washington City. The magnificent buildings, monuments, statues, and gardens that are to-day the pride of every American were not there to greet this Congress. Nothing but woods was to be seen on all sides, and Mrs. Adams is said to have lost her way in an attempt to find the Capital.

395. The Election.—The Federalists nominated John Adams and C. C. Pinckney; the Republicans (Democrats), Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. Party spirit ran high, but the Alien and Sedition Laws had crippled the Federalist party, and it was defeated. It never regained power. Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr each received the same number of votes; and the House of Representatives, after thirty-five ballots, decided upon Jefferson for President, thus leaving Burr to be Vice-President. The difficulties growing out of this election resulted in the adoption of the Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution.



Capitol at Washington.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

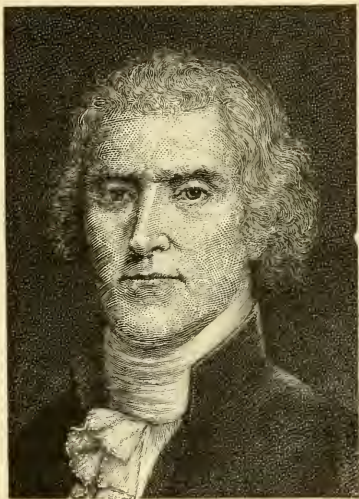
JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION, TWO TERMS (1801-09).

Leading Events.

The Louisiana Purchase (1803).
Lewis and Clark's Expedition (1804).
The War with Tripoli (1804).
Burr and Hamilton (1804).

Embargo (1807).
New States and Territories.
The First Steamboat (1807).
Slave Importation forbidden (1808).

396. The Republican (Democratic) Party.—This party came into power at a time when there was a lull in the fierce war between England and France. Its leader, Jefferson,¹ was a democrat, according to the real meaning of the word. Republican simplicity was the rule of his life, and he objected to all titles, not excepting the ordinary "Mr." of every-day address. Thinking it undemocratic to deliver a formal address to the assembled Houses, he dispensed with it, and sent a written message. The President's message was adopted by all succeeding Presidents, and is now a fixed part of our State ceremonies. His cabinet was made up of men distinguished for their abilities, talents, and education. The Federalists believed that the administration of Jefferson would



Thomas Jefferson.

¹ Thomas Jefferson was born in Shadwell, Va., in 1743, near the place he afterwards named Monticello; died July 4, 1826, the same day that John

ruin the country; but they soon saw that he was not only taking care of it well, but was expanding it wonderfully. He has been called the "first and greatest expander of the United States."

397. The Louisiana Purchase¹ (1803).—The greatest event of Jefferson's administration was the purchase of Louisi-



Map of the United States in 1803.

ana. The news came across the ocean that Spain had transferred Louisiana to France, and that the mouth of the Mississippi

Adams died, and the fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence. He was the author of that instrument, and the founder of the Republican (now called the Democratic) party, in which capacities he exerted a greater influence on American institutions than any other man except Washington. He was the author of the statute of Virginia for religious freedom, and established the University of Virginia. He also originated a complete system of public elementary and collegiate education for Virginia as early as 1777. The decimal system of coinage was also devised by him. His first work in the Virginia Legislature was to procure the passage of laws that would root out "every fiber of ancient or future aristocracy." His greatest desire was to increase the direct participation of the people in the government, and he always condemned slavery as a moral and political evil. Jefferson removed a number of officers during his term, filling their places with men of equal ability who belonged to his own party.

¹ The Spanish census of 1798 disclosed that the "Command of Arkansas" had 368 persons. St. Genevieve, Mo., was founded in 1755; St. Louis was founded in 1764. Each place had a population of 800 in 1775.

was again in the hands of an unfriendly power. Napoleon had indeed bought this territory with the view of regaining in America what France had lost; but, when troubles arose with England in 1803, he concluded that it was better to sell the whole region than risk the chance of losing it in his struggle with Great Britain. Jefferson was determined that this greatest of chances for the peaceful exclusion of another foreign power from the soil of North America should not be lost. He purchased Louisiana, although "the Constitution was stretched until it cracked," trusting that an amendment would be passed to justify him. The price paid was about fifteen million dollars, or less than three cents an acre. The result of this purchase was twofold: (1) it insured to the United States the control of the Continent; (2) it lifted us above all foreign complications.

398. Expedition of Lewis and Clark.—Jefferson now sent Capt. Merriwether Lewis and Lieut. William Clark to explore the Missouri to its source, to cross the Rocky Mountains, and to proceed to the Pacific. They went up the Missouri, crossed a portage thirty-six miles wide, reached the head waters of the Columbia, and followed that river to its mouth. The trip lasted from May 4, 1804, to Sept. 23, 1806, and furnished the first reliable information of this region. The Clark Fork of the Columbia River was named after one of the leaders of the expedition.

399. The War with Tripoli.—The Barbary States in North Africa had for centuries been the home of pirates and thieves. Their ships swarmed the high seas, and robbery was their mission. America had bought peace once by paying tribute. Another policy was pursued by Jefferson. Collecting a small fleet, he sent it (1803), under command of Commodore Preble, to conquer a peace on the Mediterranean. The war lasted about two years. Capt. Decatur distinguished himself in it, and General Eaton stormed and captured Derne (1805). The stars and stripes waved over a strange crowd of African soldiery. The blockade

of Tripoli led to a treaty of peace (1805), and the ships of America were no longer molested by 'Tripolitans.

400. Burr and Hamilton.—The popularity of Jefferson was so great in 1804 that he was reelected, with only fourteen electoral votes against him. George Clinton was elected to the vice-presidency. Aaron Burr¹ then ran for governor of New York, thinking that this position would help him to become President in 1808. But Alexander Hamilton was opposed to



Alexander Hamilton.

him, and used his great influence to defeat him, and succeeded. Burr then challenged Hamilton to a duel, which Hamilton accepted. On the eleventh day of July, 1804, they met at Weehawken, and Hamilton fell at the discharge of Burr's pistol. Hamilton refused to fire. Burr went West, and became acquainted with Harman Blennerhassett, an Irish exile who had built a splendid house on an island in the Ohio River near the mouth of the Muskingum. Here he devised a treasonable scheme to invade Mexico, and with the Western and Southern States to make a new empire, with himself as ruler. The plan was discovered, and Burr was arrested (Feb. 19, 1807). His trial occurred in Richmond, and resulted in a verdict of "not proven."

401. The Foreign Blockade.—Jefferson's second term was the beginning of a stormy season, which ended in another war a few years later. France and England were once more at war, and each was doing everything to cripple the other. England declared the coast of France to be in a state of blockade, and France retaliated by issuing a decree blockading the British Isles. American vessels approaching these forbidden lines were fired

¹ Aaron Burr was born in Newark, N.J., 1756, and died on Staten Island in 1836. He was the grandson of Jonathan Edwards, president of Princeton College. His father also held that place. He was a lawyer of great reputation. His talents were of the highest order, and justified his brilliant career. He died in obscurity, disgrace, and poverty.

upon, seized, and confiscated. The effect of this was to cripple our carrying trade. The old Revolutionary hostility to England began to revive, and the act of the "Leopard" kindled it to a flame.

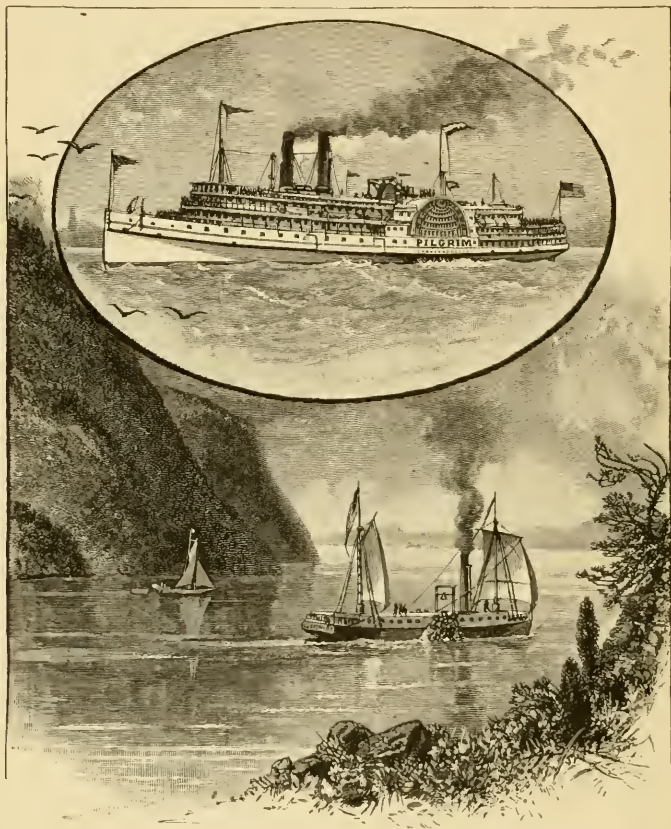
402. The Embargo.—The American frigate "Chesapeake," off the coast of Virginia, was hailed by the British man-of-war "Leopard," in 1807, and a demand made to search for deserters. This was refused, and a broadside followed from the "Leopard" which compelled a surrender. England disavowed the act, and promised reparation. Jefferson issued a proclamation forbidding British ships to enter American harbors. Then Congress passed the Embargo Act (1807), which detained our merchant ships in the ports of the United States. The British then forbade all trade with France, and Napoleon issued his famous "Milan Decree," forbidding all trade with England or her Colonies. Between these orders and decrees American commerce almost died out.

403. New States and Territories.—Ohio was admitted into the Union on Feb. 19, 1803. Two Territories were created out of the rest of the Northwest Territory during this administration,—Indiana and Michigan.¹ Both these States had long been the seat of French occupancy. St. Vincent's (Vincennes), Detroit, and Sault Ste. Marie were well known to the whole country. From the great Louisiana Purchase were created at this time the Territories of Orleans and Louisiana. Orleans was made up of the present State of Louisiana; and Louisiana Territory included the present States of Arkansas, Missouri, and the remainder of the Purchase. Mississippi Territory was also formed, being the present States of Alabama² and Mississippi.

¹ The oldest settlement in the present bounds of Michigan was made at Sault Ste. Marie, in 1668, by Jacques Marquette and Claude Dablon. Three years later Marquette gathered the Hurons into a settlement near St. Ignace, on the northern mainland of Michigan. Here he established a chapel. Detroit was settled in 1701 by the French.

² The first settlement in Alabama was by Le Moyne d'Iberville, in 1702, at Mobile.

404. The First Steamboat.—The attention of inventors had been directed to the application of steam to modes of travel, and several steamboats had been attempted; but to Robert Ful-



The "Clermont."

ton was reserved the credit of first making an assured success. He prepared his boat, the "Clermont," and launched it in 1807. The name "Fulton's Folly" had been given to it while in preparation, and no one expected that the claim of Fulton would

be realized. But the boat moved, and it kept moving until it reached Albany. The splendid boats that now ply the Hudson filled with the wealth and elegance of America, are forgotten almost before they are left by their eager passengers, but this trip and this boat will never be forgotten.

405. Slave Importation forbidden.—Congress passed a law which in 1808 made it unlawful for any person to bring slaves into the United States. At first slavery existed in all the Colonies, but was considered as of baneful influence even by slaveholders. Although a slave¹ owner Jefferson supported the law.

406. The Elections.—The Federalists put up Charles C. Pinckney² in this election, and failed. Jefferson refused a re-nomination, and the Republican (Democratic) party nominated and elected James Madison of Virginia for President, and George Clinton³ of New York for Vice-President.

¹ Slavery was introduced into Virginia in 1619; into Massachusetts in 1638; into South Carolina by Sir John Yeamans in 1671; into Georgia in 1751. The first American slave ship was built at Marblehead, Mass., in 1636, and was named "Desire."

² Charles Cotesworth Pinckney was born in Charleston, S.C., in 1746, and died in 1825. He was graduated in Oxford, England, and was a gallant soldier of the Revolution. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention, and became a leader of the Federal party in his native State. His famous retort to Talleyrand while in Paris (§ 391) gave him great distinction. He must not be confounded with Charles Pinckney, the eloquent senator and governor of South Carolina.

³ George Clinton was one of the leading patriots of New York. He was a member of the Congress that adopted the Declaration of Independence, and voted for it, but, being elected to an important military office, was not present at the signing. He was the first governor of New York, and held that office eighteen years. He opposed the Constitution because it gave too little power to the States. He was one of the greatest leaders ever known in New York politics. He died in office in 1812.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

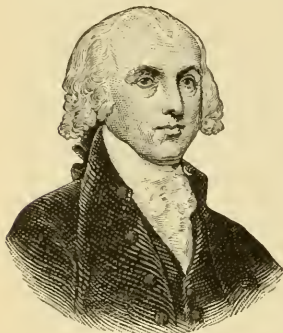
MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION, TWO TERMS (1809-17).

Leading Events.

Right of Search and Naturalization.
Battle of Tippecanoe (1811).
War with Great Britain (1812).
Gen. Hull surrenders Detroit (1812).

Battles on Northern Border (1813-14).
War with the Creeks (1813).
Campaign on Chesapeake (1814).
Battle of New Orleans (1815).

407. Disturbed Relations with England.— Madison,¹ the “Father of the Constitution,” was confronted at the very threshold of his administration with difficult questions then disturbing the relations of the United States with England and France. The Embargo Act had been abandoned, and the Non-intercourse Act was substituted. This left all ports of the world open to Americans except those of France and England, and satisfied the demands of those States which threatened to leave the Union if the embargo continued.



James Madison.

408. Right of Search and Impressment.— One of the doctrines which grew out of the Revolutionary war was expatriation, or the right to give up one's own

¹ James Madison was born in Prince George County, Va., in 1751, and died in 1836. Graduating from Princeton College in 1771, he was elected the next year to the Convention of Virginia. He was defeated at the next election because he refused to “treat” the voters. The Assembly elected him, however, to Congress, in which he became one of the most prominent men. He was a member of the convention that adopted the Constitution, and one of the three great writers for the *Federalist*. He was a mediator rather than a partisan in the great struggle between the patriots Jefferson and

country, and to swear allegiance to another. England held the contrary doctrine; and the common expression for the English belief was, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman." The belief of the British led to a claim which Americans, for lack of ships, could not successfully resist for several years. This was the right of search for British subjects. Under this claim our vessels were stopped and searched. Within eight years nearly one thousand vessels were searched, and over six thousand of our citizens impressed into the British Navy on the plea that they were British subjects.

409. Naturalization.—As Americans believed that foreigners had a right to become citizens of the United States, it became necessary to define the process of investing an alien or foreign-born person with the rights and privileges of a native. This was done by the passage of the Naturalization Laws (1802). By these each foreigner was required to file with the proper officer a statement declaring his intention to become a citizen of the United States, and to renounce his allegiance to the country of his birth. This, after a certain number of years of actual residence in the country, made him a naturalized citizen. America invited citizens from all parts of the globe. A solemn oath cut them off from their old homes, and an actual residence of five years was apt to make them think and act like Americans.

410. The Affair of the "President."—In 1811 an affair occurred on the ocean which aggravated the war feeling in America. The United States frigate "President," under Commodore Rogers, hailed in the dusk of the evening a passing vessel, and was answered by a cannon-ball. This was an insult which Rogers could not brook, and he answered the salutation with a broadside, and repeated it until he was asked to desist. Then hailing the vessel as at first, he was politely answered. The

Hamilton. He was the "confidential, personal, and political friend of Jefferson during his administration. His triumphs were those of pure reason. His public and private life were above reproach."



vessel, now completely disabled, proved to be the British ship of war "Little Belt." This splendid victory made the people glad, and "Free trade and sailors' rights!" became the popular cry. But Madison clung to a peace policy, and hoped to settle the difficulty without an appeal to arms. In his own party there was a younger and rising element, headed by Henry Clay¹ and John C. Calhoun, which asked for immediate action, and told Mr. Madison that if war was not declared, the next Republican nomination would not go to him.

411. The Battle of Tippecanoe.—The enmity to Great Britain was increased by outbreaks of the Indians in Indiana Territory, which the people claimed were caused by the English in Canada. Tecumseh, a famous Indian chief, with several



Battle of Tippecanoe.

tribes, threatened the frontier line of white settlements in Ohio and Indiana. Kentucky was again called on for help; and with

¹ Clay's resolution in the Kentucky House of Representatives, pledging Kentucky to war, total non-intercourse, or another embargo, was carried with only one opposing vote. "A surrender of liberty and independence, or a bold and independent resistance," were the first great words of the "Mill-boy of the Slashes," as Clay was called.

soldiers from that State and from Indiana Territory, of which he was governor, Gen. William Henry Harrison, a pupil of Wayne, marched into the wilderness of Indiana. He met the Indians on Tippecanoe Creek, in the sacred village of Tecumseh's brother, the Prophet, where it was said no white man could conquer, and gained a splendid victory (1811). The heaviest loss ever sustained by the Indians in battle was inflicted here.

412. War declared with Great Britain.—This battle drew the line between the war party and all others, and further escape from war was impossible. Congress voted to increase the army and navy, and on the 18th of June, 1812, war was declared with Great Britain. England now offered to rescind the "Orders in Council," thus opening the ports of France to our merchant marine. There was a time when this offer would have been accepted; but as Madison believed that no permanent peace would ensue so long as the right of search was not explicitly relinquished, and as England refused to treat upon these terms, the peace proposition failed.

413. General Hull surrenders Detroit.—Gen. William Hull was placed in command in the west; and he concentrated a large army at Detroit, where he was confronted by Gen. Brock. Just as the Americans were expecting orders to fight, Hull ran up the white flag, and surrendered the fort (Aug. 16, 1812). The country was indignant over this affair, and charged Hull with treason, cowardice, and neglect of duty. A court-martial found him guilty upon the last two charges, and sentenced him to be shot; but, on account of previous gallant conduct, he was pardoned by the President.

414. Battle of Queenston Heights.—Gen. Van Rensselaer captured the fortified post at Queenston on the Niagara River, where he was assaulted by Brock, but without success. Brock fell, mortally wounded, and the British withdrew. Van Rensselaer returned to New York for reënforcements, and while he was absent the British obtained recruits, and retook the fort (Oct. 13,

1812), after one of the bloodiest assaults of the war, in which nearly all of the thousand Americans who defended it were killed.

415. Naval Exploits.—In August (1812) Capt. David Porter captured the British man-of-war “Alert;” and a few days later (Aug. 19) Capt. Hull defeated the British “Guerrière.” In October, Capt. Jones forced the “Frolic” to surrender, and was himself captured, together with his prize, by the British “Poictiers.” But a week later Capt. Decatur captured a packet ship, and afterwards defeated the British “Macedonian.” In December Capt. Bainbridge defeated and blew up the British “Java,” and earned for his ship, the “Constitution,” the name “Old Ironsides.”



Battle between "Constitution" and "Guerrière."

The American sloop “Hornet” met and sank the British “Peacock” in February (1813). The “Chesapeake” was not so successful in June, when she fought the British ship “Shannon,” and was obliged to surrender. Every officer was killed or wounded, and the dying Capt. Lawrence issued the gallant order,

"Don't give up the ship." The naval event of the year, however, was the cruise of the "Essex," under Commodore Porter. He captured many prizes off South America and Africa, and pursued his course through the Pacific to South America, where his ship was captured in March (1814) by two British war vessels that had been dispatched for that purpose.

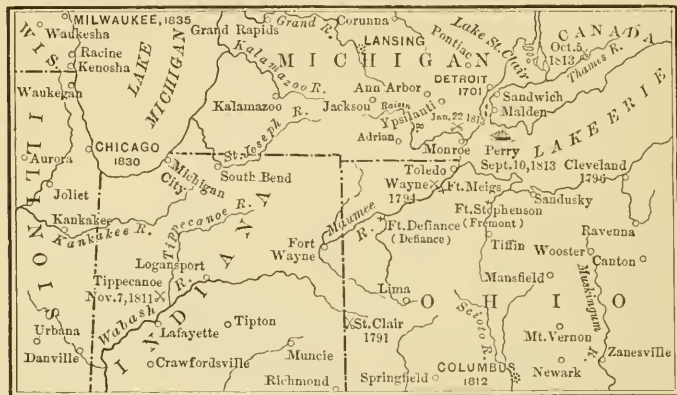
Besides these victories over the British Navy, the privateers sent out by the government under letters of marque, principally from Baltimore, captured about three hundred merchant ships, and took several thousand prisoners. Thus the United States was unexpectedly successful on the ocean, and in our little navy England had found, to her amazement and chagrin, a competitor that was successfully contesting with her the supremacy of the sea.

416. The Presidential Election.—While these events were taking place on the ocean, the presidential election occurred in November (1812). Two Democrats were voted for,—James Madison, and De Witt Clinton¹ of New York. De Witt Clinton was nominated by some of the more violent war Republicans (Democrats), and was also supported by the Federalists or peace party. Madison, the regular nominee, was reëlected, with Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts for Vice-President. The Vice-President, George Clinton, died in the preceding April, and was succeeded by the president of the Senate, William H. Crawford of Georgia.

417. The Earthquake at New Madrid.—In 1811 a great earthquake convulsed the valley of the Mississippi, beginning at the mouth of the Ohio, and extending three hundred miles to the

¹ De Witt Clinton was born at Little Britain, N.Y., March 2, 1769, and died at Albany, Feb. 11, 1828. He was a nephew of George Clinton, and his whole life was given to the public service. He was eloquent and learned. He was one of the first promoters of the Erie Canal, and was preëminent among statesmen for his patronage of learning and schools. His belief was, that, in promoting the interests of moral and intellectual cultivation, there can be no prodigality in the application of the public treasure.

south. The disturbances lasted several months, and a large portion of country near New Madrid was sunk and submerged. These lands in Arkansas and Missouri have taken the name "sunk lands." The St. Francis River changed its channel, and a series of lakes took the place of the old bed.



Map showing Western Battlefields.

418. The Massacre at the River Raisin.—A detachment of Americans, chiefly Kentuckians, crossed Lake Erie upon the ice, and drove the British from Frenchtown (now Monroe, Mich.) on the river Raisin. Soon after, Col. Proctor, with a large force of British and Indians, attacked the Americans at this place, and routed them (Jan. 22, 1813). Gen. Winchester, in surrendering, exacted a promise from Col. Proctor that his troops should have protection from the Indians. Despite this promise, the Indians began their work of butchering immediately after the surrender. They tomahawked, scalped, and burned the defenseless men. Out of a thousand brave men, only about forty escaped.

419. Other Engagements.—Gen. Dearborn attacked and plundered Toronto in April. In May, 1813, Harrison was surrounded at Fort Meigs, on the Maumee, and besieged by a large force under Proctor and Tecumseh. Gen. Clay marched to his

relief and defeated the British, but lost a detachment of gallant troops under Col. Dudley. Early in August, Proctor and Tecumseh fell upon Fort Stephenson (Fremont, O.), but Major Croghan defended it with such spirit as to make them withdraw. A few weeks later the British attempted to capture Sackett's Harbor, but were repulsed; and at the same time the American troops captured Fort George at the mouth of the Niagara.



Commodore Perry.

420. The Battle of Lake Erie.—The English, with a great array of battleships, were sweeping Lake Erie, when Commodore Perry gathered together a number of ships, attacked Capt. Barclay, and defeated him (Sept. 10, 1813). More famous even than the battle has



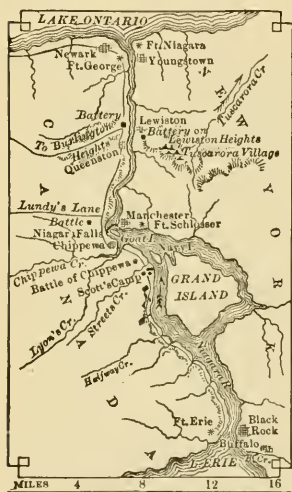
Battle of Lake Erie.

become the report which Perry sent to Gen. Harrison, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours,—two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop."

421. The Battle of the Thames.—Gen. Harrison crossed into Canada after Perry's victory, and compelled Proctor and Tecumseh to give battle on the river Thames (Oct. 5, 1813). The attack of the Western soldiers, led by Col. Johnson, was irresistible. "Remember the Raisin!" was in every mouth; and in eight minutes the British regulars surrendered, while the Indians scattered like autumn leaves. Tecumseh was slain, and Detroit and the Raisin were retrieved.

422. Battles about Niagara.—Gen. Scott attacked the British at Chippewa (July 5, 1814) on the Canada shore, and

carried everything before him. Three weeks after this, amid the roar and almost within the spray of the mighty cataract of Niagara, was fought the battle of Niagara, sometimes called Bridgewater, and sometimes Lundy's Lane. The battle began at sundown, and continued until after midnight. Gen. Scott had two horses shot under him, and was finally wounded himself.



Map of Niagara Frontier.

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423. Battle of Plattsburg.—

This was a combined land and naval action. Gen. Macomb commanded the American land forces, and Commodore MacDonough the flotilla. The British land forces were com-

rooster with defiant shouts. Commodore Downie was killed, and the British fleet surrendered (September, 1814). Prevost retreated, and there was no more fighting in that quarter.

424. War with the Creeks.—The Creek Indians of Georgia and Alabama took up the quarrel of the Shawnees of the Northwest, and on Aug. 30, 1813, appeared in large numbers at Fort Mims, near the lower Alabama River, and captured it. The prisoners were all massacred. This aroused the Americans, and the militia of Georgia and Tennessee turned out in large numbers, with Andrew Jackson in supreme command. Gen. Floyd, with a detachment of Georgians, met the Indians at Calabee and at Autossee, and defeated them. Gen. Coffee, with troops from the "Volunteer State," attacked the Indians at Tallassahatchee on Nov. 3, and was successful. Jackson himself gained a complete victory on the 8th at Talladega, and another at Emucfaw a few days after.



Scene of the Creek War.



Weathersford.

425. Battle of the Horseshoe Bend. After all their reverses, a last rally was made by Weathersford¹ and his brave Creeks at Tohopeka, or Horseshoe Bend of the Tallapoosa River. The Indians, with twelve hundred warriors, were ready for battle. Gen. Jackson, with a superior force, attacked them front and rear (March 27, 1814) with irresistible effect. Nearly half the Creeks were slain by the deadly rifles of the Tennessee

¹ Weathersford was a half-breed Creek leader, and a brave man. At the surrender he said to Jackson, "I am in your power. Do with me as you please. I am a soldier. I have done the white people all the harm I could.

militia. Peace followed, and with it another Indian cession of territory.

426. Bladensburg and the Capture of Washington.—

During the summer of 1813 the British fleet under Admiral George Cockburn did much damage on the Atlantic coast. The New England coast was completely blockaded, and the coast on each side of the Chesapeake and Delaware Bays was ravaged, and much property destroyed. Frenchtown, Georgetown, Havre de



Grace, and Fredericktown were burned. Major-Gen. Ross, with three thousand veterans fresh from a campaign against Napoleon, entered the Chesapeake in August, and proceeded on his march to Washington. Gen. Win- der gathered the Maryland and Virginia militia at Bladensburg, about six miles from Washington, where a severe battle was fought (Aug. 24, 1814), but without success. The veterans of Europe were held at bay for two hours by the spirited resistance of the Americans. Ross pushed on, and

entered Washington that night. The President and all the officers had hastily departed. Ross staid twenty-four hours in the Amer-

I have fought them, and fought them bravely. If I had an army, I would yet fight, and contend to the last; but I have none. My people are all gone. My warriors can no longer hear my voice. Their bones are at Talladega, Tallassahatchee, Emucfaw, and Tohopeka. I have not surrendered myself thoughtlessly. Whilst there were chances for success, I never left my post nor supplicated peace. But my people are gone, and I now ask it for myself and for my nation. The women and children of the war party who are now starving in the woods call for peace." The crowd grew restless here, and several soldiers cried, "Kill him!" Jackson, in his peculiarly imperious manner, shouted, "Any man who could kill as brave a man as this, would rob the dead!" Weathersford retained the respect of the whites for many years.

ican capital, and while there destroyed two million-dollars' worth of property, including the Capitol and other public buildings.

427. Movements on Baltimore.—While Ross and Cockburn attacked Washington, Sir Peter Parker was sent to capture Baltimore. At Caulk's Field, in Kent County, an engagement occurred in which Sir Peter Parker was slain (Aug. 31, 1814). Ross landed on Sept. 11 at North Point, where a desperate encounter occurred, in which he was killed.

428. Bombardment of Fort McHenry.—The British laid aside the musket for the mortar and bomb. Col. George Armistead, in command at Fort McHenry, a fortress which commanded the approach to Baltimore from the water side, was attacked by the British fleet with a vigor almost unparalleled. The bombardment began at two o'clock on Tuesday morning, Sept. 14, 1814, and lasted without intermission till one o'clock on Wednesday morning. Over eighteen hundred shells were hurled at this splendid fort without effect. The American flag floated defiantly through shot and shell all day and night; and when the eager eyes of the Baltimoreans were turned at daybreak towards the fort, "the flag was still there," and the city was saved.¹ The defense of Baltimore retrieved the loss of Washington. Baltimore reared



Col. George Armistead.

¹ Francis Scott Key, from the deck of one of the enemy's ships, had watched the flag all day, and as long as the bombs shot through the midnight darkness he knew that the fort was holding out. But the sullen silence from one o'clock to daybreak led him to believe that his gallant countrymen had given way; and, when the gray light of the eastern sky showed the floating folds of the stars and stripes "still there," he composed that great American song, *The Star-Spangled Banner*, to commemorate the action. Key was born in Maryland in 1779, and was a distinguished jurist and poet.

a splendid monument in the center of the city in honor of the "Old Defenders."

429. The Hartford Convention.—The New England States resolved to take decisive steps to maintain their rights. They had refused to permit their militia to be sent out of their States to carry on war that they thought unnecessary.¹ Besides this, the administration had refused to pay the claims of their militia when called out for their local defense. Delegates from all the New England States met at Hartford on Dec. 15, 1814, and proceeded to deliberate with closed doors. No one knows to this day what was really done by this body. They adopted resolutions which show that they had determined on one of two things, — a change of national policy, or a separate government of their own. A second convention that was to meet for more decisive action was rendered unnecessary by the cessation of the war.

430. Battle of New Orleans.—Twelve thousand veterans from Europe landed at the mouth of the Mississippi, and marched towards New Orleans. Gen. Jackson hastened to that place, and began to put it in an attitude of defense. With few men and little time, the "born general" got ready to resist the best-trained British army that ever landed on American soil. With cotton bales an impregnable breastwork was formed; and behind this the gallant Kentuckians, Mississippians,² and Tennesseans, with the citizens and slaves of New Orleans, stood ready to hold the place to the end. The English general, Pakenham, led the charge, only to be signally repulsed (Jan. 8, 1815). Pakenham was killed, and the British retreated. This was the most brilliant victory of the war. The British loss exceeded two thousand; while the American loss was but thirteen.

¹ The Federalists in New England had during the previous year (1813) denounced the war as unholy, wicked, base, cruel, and unjust. The pulpits advocated disunion as the only remedy.

² So eager were the Mississippians to go to New Orleans, that men enough were not left at home to guard the country. A draft was set up by the clerks to determine who should stay at home.

431. Treaty of Peace.—While the people were exulting over Jackson's victory, the news came that terms of peace had been agreed upon at Ghent (Dec. 24, 1814). It was seen that the battle of New Orleans was fought after the treaty of peace, but no one cried about that. Everybody was glad that peace had been made, and no one cared to investigate the terms upon which it had been made. The object for which the war had been undertaken was not named in the treaty, but no right to search American ships has since been asserted by England.

432. The Algerine Pirates (1815).—The pirates of Algiers and Tripoli took advantage of our war with Great Britain to renew their lawless attacks upon our commerce. This war being over, Congress now resolved to teach them to respect the American name. Capt. Decatur was sent to the Mediterranean with a fleet, which forced the Dey of Algiers to give security for his future conduct, and to pay our government for the recent pillages. We have had no trouble with the petty powers of North Africa since that day.

433. New States.—The Territory of Orleans, under the name "State of Louisiana," was admitted to the Union on April 30, 1812, as the eighteenth State; and soon after, the name of "the Territory of Louisiana," which included the present States of Arkansas and Missouri, was changed to that of "the Missouri Territory." St. Louis was the capital. Louisiana was the first State erected out of the Louisiana Purchase. The second State formed from the Northwest Territory was that of Indiana, which was admitted into the Union Dec. 11, 1816, as the nineteenth State.

CHAPTER XL.

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION, TWO TERMS (1817-25).

Leading Events.

First Seminole War (1818).
First Ocean Steamer (1819).
Purchase of Florida (1819).

The Missouri Compromise (1820).
The Monroe Doctrine (1823).
Lafayette's Visit (1824).

434. The Elections.—The Republicans (Democrats) nominated James Monroe¹ of Virginia for President, and Daniel D.



James Monroe.

Tompkins of New York for Vice-President. The Federal party nominated Rufus King of New York, and John Eager Howard of Maryland. The Republican (Democratic) ticket was elected by an immense majority.

435. The Cabinet.—Monroe's cabinet, made up of men thoroughly identified with his political views, was noted for its ability. John Quincy Adams of Massachusetts was secretary of state; William H. Crawford of Georgia, secretary of the treasury; John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, secretary of war; William Wirt of Virginia, attorney-general; and Benjamin W. Crowninshield of Massachusetts, secretary of the navy.

¹ James Monroe was born in Westmoreland County, Va., in 1758, and died in New York in 1831. He was educated at William and Mary College, and served with distinction in the American Army during the Revolution. He held many responsible positions in his State, and opposed the adoption of the Constitution because it gave too much power to the Federal Government. He was sent as envoy extraordinary to France in 1802 to aid the resident minister, Edward Livingston, in negotiations for the purchase of Louisiana.

436. The Message of Monroe to Congress was applauded by all parties, and an era of peace and good will set in. The internal revenue taxes were abolished, and a pension act passed to relieve the soldiers of the two great wars with Great Britain.

437. The Seminole War.—The Seminole Indians of Florida began a series of attacks (1818) upon the people of the neighboring States, and Gen. Jackson was sent to subdue them. With a thousand men, he marched into the Indian country, where, finding them succored by the Spanish authorities, he invaded Florida and captured the Spanish fortress St. Marks. The Spaniards at Pensacola continued to aid and assist the Indians, until Jackson drove them out, and hoisted the American flag over that town. Following up his successes, he finally compelled the Spanish governor to sail for Havana. This effectually silenced two objectionable elements,—the Seminoles and the Spaniards. The tough fiber of Jackson earned for him the title “Old Hickory.”



The "Savannah."

438. The First Ocean Steamer.—The old sailing vessels had been doing faithful service for thousands of years, but were

He was twice governor of Virginia, and secretary of state under Madison; a statesman of large practical powers, but not distinguished for oratory.

compelled in this last century to give place to ships of more rapid transit. The ship "Savannah" crossed the ocean (1819) from the city of the same name, displayed its graces to wondering Europe, and changed the carrying trade of the world. The three-months' voyage to Europe was forever displaced by the quicker mode of travel. The trip is now made in less than six days.

439. The Purchase of Florida.—The Spanish Government, having been put out of possession of Florida by Gen. Jackson, sold the territory to the United States in 1819 for five million dollars. Thus the possession of the Floridas by Spain,



Map of United States in 1819.

which had continued with but slight interruption for three hundred years, came to an end. St. Augustine was almost the only town in all that region. The Spanish treaty not only gave the United States what is now called Florida, but settled the dispute over West Florida, on the east side of the Mississippi.

440. The Missouri Compromise.—The question of slavery became an exciting one when Missouri asked for admission into the Union. Missouri had slaves, and there were those in Congress who objected to increasing the number of slave States. Louisiana had been bought with slavery already existing upon

her territory. Should all the Louisiana Purchase be cut up into slave States, the power of those States would be supreme in the government. The House voted to exclude slavery from Missouri, but the Senate voted to let the new State enter without this restriction. The debate was long and bitter (1818-21). Senator Thomas of Illinois introduced what is known as the "Missouri Compromise Bill," which permitted Missouri to come into the Union without any restriction whatever, but provided that in all other States formed out of the Louisiana Purchase, lying north of the parallel $36^{\circ} 30'$, slavery should be prohibited. This was adopted, and Missouri was admitted as a slave State.

441. The Monroe Doctrine.—The South American Republics, together with that of Mexico, were struggling for freedom, and Monroe in an address to Congress (1823) advised that body to recognize their independence. Austria, Prussia, and Russia, called the "Holy Alliance," were preparing to help Spain in the subjugation of her American provinces. Monroe said, "As a principle, the American continents are henceforth not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power." This is called the "Monroe Doctrine," and, when it was announced, it broke the European coalition.

442. The Era of Growth.—During Monroe's administration many new States were admitted into the Union, and nearly all of the territory east of the Mississippi had assumed this rela-



Map showing the National Road.

tion. Mississippi was admitted in 1817, Illinois in 1818, Alabama in 1819, Maine in 1820, and Missouri in 1821. Westward

the tide of empire set its way, and in the valley of the Mississippi a new world was begun.

The Erie Canal, from the Hudson River by way of the Mohawk Valley to Lake Erie at Buffalo, was begun in 1817, and constructed chiefly through the perseverance of De Witt Clinton, and in spite of fierce opposition from those who not only considered the enterprise impracticable, but were opposed to such an application of public moneys. The opening of the canal in October, 1825, was celebrated by the ringing of bells and the firing of cannon along its route. The canal became at once the great route between the East and the West, and, except when closed with ice in the winter, there was a constant passage through it of passengers and merchandise to the West, and of western farm products to the East. It helped to settle western New York, and enabled that State to pass Virginia, which until that time had been first in population.

The Cumberland Road, or, as it soon came to be known, the National Road, was begun in 1812, and built by the government, from Cumberland, Md., to Wheeling, and during Monroe's administration it was continued to Zanesville on the Muskingum.¹ To this road Baltimore, Washington, and other cities were joined by turnpikes. Over the National Road large emigrant bands from Maryland and Virginia passed into Kentucky, southern Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Steamboats on the Lakes carried the New Englanders into northern Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan, while steamboats on the Ohio distributed the adventurous sons of all sections to the banks of the Mississippi and its tributaries.

443. Lafayette's Visit.—During the last year of Monroe's administration, Gen. Lafayette visited the United States, and traveled in most of them. Everybody hailed the generous French patriot with delight, and his trip was an ovation from

¹ This road, originally projected to the Mississippi, was extended westward from Zanesville during J. Q. Adams's administration, and some work was done upon it in Indiana; but it was turned over by President Jackson to the States through which it passed.



Settlers going West.

beginning to end. At Boston he laid the corner stone of Bunker Hill Monument on the day of the fiftieth anniversary of the battle. Congress gave him two hundred thousand dollars and a township of land, as a return for his great services in the dark days of the Revolution.

444. The Elections.—Monroe, following the precedent of Washington, Jefferson, and Madison, declined a third term. The custom for twenty years had been for the congressmen to agree upon the one that should make the race for President in each party. This election sounded the death-knell of the congressional caucus, and prepared the way for national conventions of delegates, and for parties with announced platforms. The Republican (Democratic) caucus nominated William H. Crawford of Georgia for President, and Albert Gallatin of Pennsylvania for Vice-President. The latter declined, and the place was filled by substituting for Mr. Gallatin the name of John C. Calhoun of South Carolina. The Federals made no nomination. The result was, that the people voted for a great many candidates who

had not been considered by the caucus. The electoral vote stood for President, 99 for Andrew Jackson, 84 for John Quincy Adams, 41 for William H. Crawford, and 37 for Henry Clay. There being no opposition to Calhoun for Vice-President, he was declared elected. There being no election of President in the electoral college, the matter was thrown into the House of Representatives for decision, according to the requirements of the Constitution. This body decided the contest by selecting John Quincy Adams for President.

CHAPTER XLI.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS'S¹ ADMINISTRATION (1825-29).

Leading Events.

Republican becomes Democratic
Party (1828).
Slavery and the Tariff (1828).

Death of Adams and Jefferson (1826).
Railroads (1828-31).
The Elections (1828).

445. Parties.—There had always been two parties holding distinct ideas as to the powers of the Constitution: (1) the strict



John Quincy Adams.

constructionists, (2) the liberal constructionists. The first idea was advanced by the earliest Republican (Democratic) expounders of the Constitution, and grew in power as the party advanced in age. The second idea was held by the Federalists, and then by the Whigs. Strict construction required the words of the Constitution to be taken in their ordinary use, without any extension by way of explanation, and demanded that the Federal Government should be confined to its specific and limited sphere of delegated powers. Liberal con-

¹ John Quincy Adams, son of John Adams, was born at Braintree, Mass., in 1767, and died in 1848. He had an excellent education, beginning with a superior mother, and continued in the best schools at Paris, Leyden, The Hague, and at Harvard College. He was minister to Holland under Washington, and to Berlin under his father. He was elected to the United States Senate by the Federalists of Massachusetts, but resigned this position after voting for Jefferson's Embargo Act. He gave greater offense by charging some of the Federal leaders in Massachusetts with a plot to dissolve the Union. From this time until the division of the Republican (Democratic) party, about 1828, he acted with that party. Madison made him minister to Russia, and afterwards to Great Britain. He helped to negotiate the Treaty

struction required the words to be taken in their most extended sense, enlarging by inference and implication the powers of general government. Strict construction magnified the States, while liberal construction magnified the Federal Government.¹

446. Protective Tariff.— During this administration political excitement ran high, and the era of good feeling which had prevailed for a number of years came to an end. The chief subject of discussion was the policy of high tariffs and internal improvements which had begun under the preceding administration. For a number of years American manufactures had been unprofitable, and in 1824 Congress had passed a tariff act increasing the duties on imports which came in competition with American manufactures. Such a tariff is called a “protective tariff,” as it aims to protect home manufactures, a tariff designed simply to raise revenue being called a “revenue tariff.” In 1828 a still higher tariff law was passed, and a part of the revenue was expended in internal improvements. The combination of a protective tariff and internal improvements was called “The American System,” and was advocated by Mr. Clay and the Whig party, which was soon afterwards formed. Since most of the manufactories were in the North, the people of the South claimed, that, although the high tariff might benefit the North, it produced

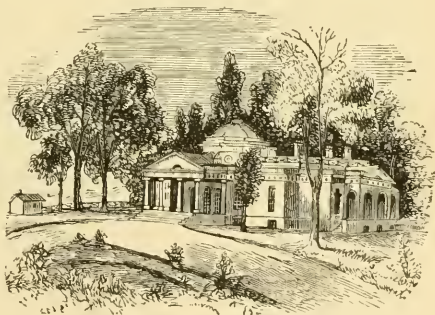
of Ghent, and was appointed by Monroe to the cabinet position which he held for eight years. He ran for the presidency with three other Republicans (Democrats), all professing about the same creed, and was elected. After his term of office expired, he was sent to Congress for seventeen years from his native district. The last years of his life in Congress were devoted to an inflexible opposition to slavery. He was called the “Old Man Eloquent.”

¹ During Washington’s administration certain statesmen argued that Hamilton as secretary of the treasury assumed powers for the National Government not granted by the Constitution. The leader of this movement was Thomas Jefferson, and the party that accepted its conclusions was called the “Republican” party. It retained this title from 1792 to 1828, when it took its present name, the “Democratic” party. Hamilton argued that the powers in question were all implied in the Constitution, and were lawful. His followers were called “Federalists,” and retained an organization until 1828, when the National Republican party succeeded them, to be followed in 1833 by the Whigs, and in 1854 by the present Republican party.

no benefit to their section. The advocates of the American System, on the other hand, maintained that the planters of the South were benefited by having a nearer market and better prices for their cotton. The Legislatures of several Southern States protested against the tariff act of 1828 as unconstitutional, and the South as a whole considered itself very unfairly treated.

447. Internal Improvements.—The strict constructionists claimed that improvements wholly within a State should be made by the State, and not by the General Government. The other party held that it was the duty of the General Government to help the States to build canals, and to make turnpikes and all other improvements. The same principles were at stake in the matter of a United States Bank. Congress had passed a protective tariff, had established a bank, and was appropriating the moneys of the government to aid internal improvements. Thus the people divided into parties based upon differences of view as to the organic law of the land. Throughout Adams's administration the issues were being formed.

448. Death of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson.—The fiftieth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1826) was saddened by the news that two of the most prominent men connected with the forming of that instrument and of the government had died upon the same day. John Adams died at Quincy, Mass., and Thomas Jefferson at Monticello, Va.



Monticello.

449. Railroads.—Maryland pushed steam into its greatest prominence this year by the construction of locomotives that

could propel themselves around curves. In 1828 the ground was broken in Maryland for a railroad to the West,—the beginning of the great Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. Charles Carroll of Carrollton was its president, and at that time was the only signer of the Declaration of Independence living. His remark as he struck the spade into the ground was a high compliment to railroads. He said, “I consider this among the important acts of my life, second only to that of signing the Declaration of Independence, if second even to that.”

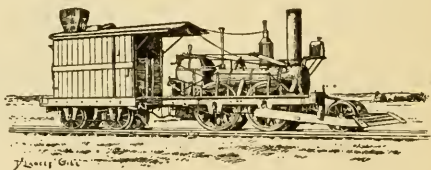
For two years the cars were pulled by horses and mules. Then Evan Thomas constructed a car with sails, which he called



The “Æolus.”

the “Æolus.” This ran easily and well, though it had to travel the way the wind blew. Then Peter Cooper constructed in Baltimore a locomotive which met every condition, and dispensed with horses, mules, and sails. The first trip ever made with an American engine was made by Peter Cooper and a few friends, between Baltimore and Ellicott’s Mills, on Aug. 28, 1830. The

trip, thirteen miles, was made in fifty-seven minutes. This same road now boasts of locomotives that will pull immense trains of cars from Baltimore to Cincinnati in twenty hours, without regard to the immense Alleghanies that tower between. The same year saw the opening of the Charleston and Hamburg Railroad in South Carolina, and of the Petersburg Railroad in North Carolina. In 1831 the Mohawk and Hudson was opened in New York. To-day the railroads are everywhere, and distance is no longer an obstacle.¹



First Locomotive in America.

¹ The New York and Erie Canal connecting Albany and Buffalo, and the Pennsylvania Canal connecting Philadelphia with Pittsburg, gave the States of New York and Pennsylvania great advantages over the hitherto leading

450. The Elections. — The Legislature of Tennessee in open session nominated Gen. Andrew Jackson for President, and called upon the other States to ratify this action. "Measures, not men," was the rallying cry of the campaign. Jackson was put forward as the candidate representing the opposition to the tariff and internal improvement measures passed by Congress. The party that he represented took the name "Democratic Party;" while the administration supporters took the name "National Republican," and nominated John Quincy Adams for the presidency. Gen. Jackson was elected by a large majority. The administration of Adams was noted for its economy and for the ability of the cabinet. Many of the President's recommendations, although ridiculed at the time, have since become laws, adding honor and renown to the country.

States, Virginia and Maryland. The latter States began the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal to the West. Not satisfied with this, and being desirous of bringing and retaining within their borders mechanics, manufacturers, merchants, and agriculturalists, they had a survey made of the country between the tide water of the Potomac and the Ohio River for the purpose of constructing another canal. Gen. Bernard, Col. Totten, and John L. Sullivan were appointed by the President of the United States to make the survey. In 1826 a report was made, fixing the cost at \$22,375,000. This was so great as to paralyze the energies of the Marylanders and Virginians. Driven from their canal project, and seeing their trade from the West diverted to the Northeast, they began to devise other means to connect themselves with the West. In 1827 a committee met at Baltimore, and recommended the building of a railroad from Baltimore to the Ohio River. The State granted a charter in 1827, and the ground was broken in 1828. Thus began the railroad enterprise of America.

CHAPTER XLII.

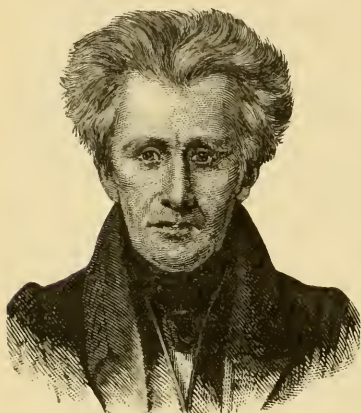
JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION, TWO TERMS (1829-37).

Leading Events.

Nullification (1832).
Jackson's Vetoes (1831-37).
Black Hawk War (1831-32).

Removal of the Indians (1837-38).
The Florida War (1835-38).
Growth of Conventions.

451. Civil-Service "Spoils."—Gen. Jackson¹ began his administration by surrounding himself with men whom he could trust.



Andrew Jackson.

Responsible to the country for the execution of the laws, he placed in office only such men as held the same political principles as himself, thus securing not only the ability, but also the active coöperation, of his assistants. Ability was held to be a requisite in all cases, but along with this Jackson demanded a kindred political sentiment. Senator Marcy of New York uttered this sentiment: "To the victors belong the spoils." Jackson followed

it pretty closely during his administration; and to a greater or less extent it has been followed by every administration since.

¹ Andrew Jackson was born in 1767 in the Waxhaw Settlement on the border between North and South Carolina, and died in 1845. He had little education, but great independence of character. His father died poor the year in which he was born. He entered the Revolutionary army in 1781. He studied law in Salisbury, N. C., and moved to Nashville, Tenn. He helped to frame the first constitution of that State, and

452. The United States Bank.—The second charter of the bank was to expire in 1836, and Congress voted to renew it. Jackson vetoed the measure, and the bank soon perished.

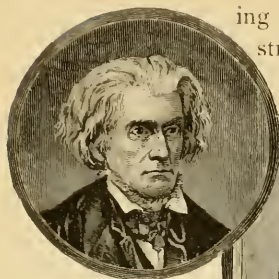
453. Nullification Ordinance.—The people of South Carolina met in a convention in 1832, and declared that the new tariff, being based upon the principle of protection to manufacturers, and not upon that of raising revenue, was unconstitutional. Senator Hayne, in a speech of great ability in the Senate of the United States, argued the ultimate right of a State to nullify an Act of Congress, and was answered by Daniel Webster¹ in a speech of great eloquence, denying the right.

454. Jackson's Proclamation.—The President decided the question by a proclamation (December, 1832) declaring that "the laws of the United States must be executed." This startled both friends and foes, and for the time nullification was abandoned. The prompt and decisive action of Gen. Jackson did more to plant the value of the Union in the hearts and minds of Americans than all the speeches that were made. Jackson was an anti-tariff man; but he believed that nullification by a State was a greater evil than even a protective tariff, and acted vigorously in the matter.

455. Clay's Compromise.—The Senate had three patriots in Clay, Calhoun, and Webster. They were men of command-

was its first congressman. After this he was elected senator. This proving too slow a body for him, he resigned, and became judge of the Supreme Court of Tennessee. In the Creek war of 1814 he gained great popularity, which was greatly increased by the victory at New Orleans. This made him the idol of a large part of the country. He was bold, honest, and inflexible, and was justly called "the man of the people."

¹ Daniel Webster, statesman, jurist, and orator, was born in Salisbury (now Franklin), N.H., in 1782, and died in Marshfield, Mass., in 1852. He was graduated from Dartmouth College in 1801, and practiced law in his native town, and later in Boston. He entered Congress in 1813, where he served, except for a brief interval, until 1841. His most memorable parliamentary effort was this reply to Hayne, a powerful argument in defense of the Union and the Constitution. In 1850 he supported Clay's "Compromise Measures" in his famous 7th of March speech.

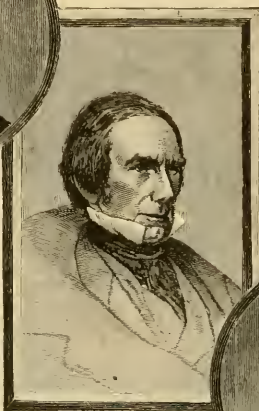
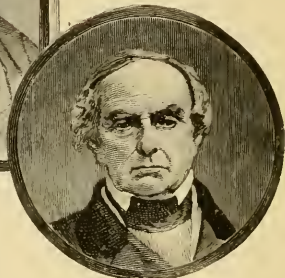
*John C. Calhoun.¹*

the title of "The Great Pacificator."

The Tariff Compromise of 1833 was based upon the principle that protection should be abandoned. By

the bill all duties above the requirements of revenue were to be gradually reduced. The reduction was to

go on for ten years, when all duties should be levied for revenue, and not for protection. After the passage of this bill, the South Carolina Convention met, and rescinded its ordinance.

*Henry Clay.²**Daniel Webster.*

ing intellect, unquestioned courage, and strong convictions. Jackson asserted the validity of the law, but Clay so amended it as to make it unobjectionable to the contending parties. Clay's remarkable power in bringing men together won for him

¹ John Caldwell Calhoun was born in Abbeville district, S.C., in 1782, and died in 1850. He was graduated with distinction at Yale. He entered Congress in 1810, and won a national reputation as a leader before he had served his first term. He was held in high esteem by his State and party. His reputation for scholarship, logical power, and unimpassioned eloquence was not surpassed by that of any man in Congress.

² Henry Clay was born in "the Slashes" of Hanover County, Va. He studied law, and settled for practice in Lexington, Ky. He advocated the gradual abolition of slavery, and favored a tariff for protection. He began his career as a Republican (Democrat), but became the leader of the Whig party at its formation. As "Kentucky's favorite son," he held a high position in the esteem of the whole country, and was an orator of great power. For thirteen years he was speaker of the House of Representatives, and was admired by all parties for his courtesy, firmness, and accuracy.

456. Internal Improvements.—The Maysville Road Bill passed both Houses of Congress; and Jackson vetoed it, as he did several others of the same kind. These vetoes stopped the flood of schemes and measures which were presenting themselves to Congress every day. The President and his party favored improvements, but held that it was not a function of the General Government to carry them on. Such matters belonged to the States.

457. The Black Hawk War.—The Sacs, Foxes, and Winnebagoes, and the whites of Illinois, were in constant conflict. The fine cornfields north of Rock River in Wisconsin were too tempting to insure their possession to the savages. A treaty extorted from them transferred all this region to the United States for almost nothing. They afterwards refused to move, and war followed (1831–32). Gen. Atkinson marched into the country, and defeated them at Stillman's Run. The battle of Bad Axe terminated the war with the defeat of the Indians.¹

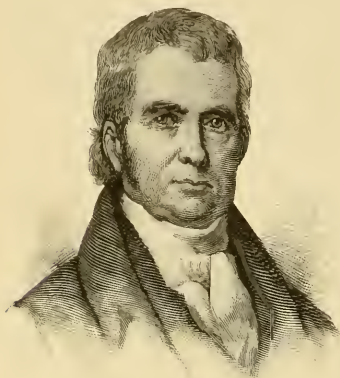


Scene of Black Hawk War.

458. The Cherokees.—The Cherokees, the best of all the Indian nations, were now to feel the iron hand of civilization. They had farms, towns, schools, printing presses, and laws; but the white people wanted their lands, and the government had

¹ Several men who afterwards became famous were soldiers in the campaign,—Zachary Taylor, Albert Sidney Johnston, Major Anderson, Jefferson Davis, and Abraham Lincoln. It is said that the first time that Lincoln ever took the oath of allegiance was when he offered as a recruit, and was sworn in by Jefferson Davis of the regular army.

agreed to obtain them. The Georgia Legislature passed laws extending the State laws over the lands of the Creeks and of the Cherokees, but denying them civil rights in the State courts. The Supreme Court of the United States, of which John Mar-



John Marshall.

shall¹ had for thirty years been chief justice, held that the Georgia laws were unconstitutional (1831), and the State of Georgia then refused to obey the mandate of the court. This made it necessary to force the Cherokees to sell. By bribes and treaties (1838), all in the nature of force, the Cherokees were finally seated in Indian Territory upon reservations specially created for them. Forcible removal was necessary with the

Creeks and Choctaws; but in good time the Indians were all removed, and the white people got the lands.

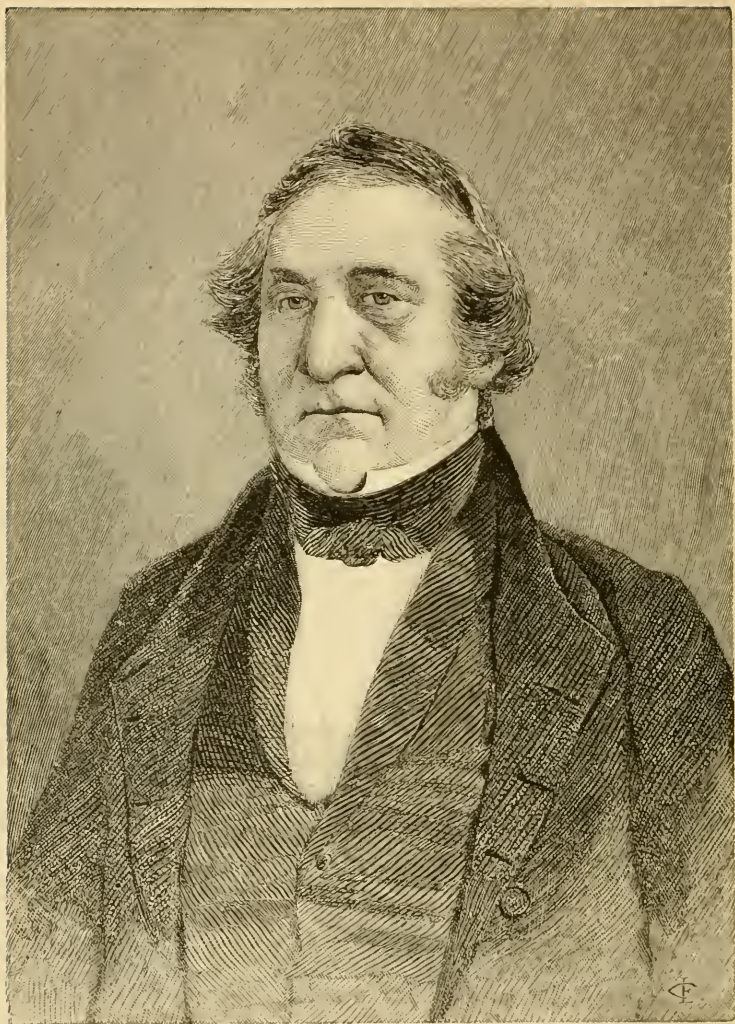
459. The Seminole War.—The Seminoles of Florida objected to giving up their lands, and refused to go West. Osceola, one of the bravest of the brave, defied the government, and amid the swamps of Florida maintained a successful resistance for three years (1835–38). Major Dade's forces of a hundred and seventy men fell into an ambuscade, and all but one man

¹ John Marshall was born in Virginia in 1755, and died in 1835. His education was sound, and his talents eminent. In addition to numerous positions of honor awarded him by his State and country, he was the chief justice of the Supreme Court of the United States from 1801 to his death. The thirty volumes of the United States Reports, covering a period of thirty-five years, contain the monuments of his great judicial power and learning, and are the standards upon constitutional questions. He imparted life and vigor to the Constitution and to the national body politic. His proudest epitaph may be written in a line: "Here lies the expounder of the Constitution of the United States."

were killed. Gen. Clinch defeated the Indians on the Withlacoochie, but retreated at once. Gens. Scott and Gaines were sent to Florida, and the Seminoles were driven into the Everglades. In the fall of 1837 Osceola, relying upon the protection of a flag of truce, went to an American camp. The flag was dishonored by his seizure. He was sent to Fort Moultrie as a prisoner, and died in prison the next year. Without a chief, the Seminoles fought on. Zachary Taylor took command, and carried the war into the swamps. On Christmas Day he fought a battle near Lake Okechobee, and was successful, but at a terrible cost of life. He hunted the Indians down despite all obstacles, until they submitted, and were carried to the West.

460. Land Laws.—Col. Thomas H. Benton, being himself a pioneer, sympathized with that class, and during the thirty years he represented Missouri in the United States Senate, he advocated new land laws: (1) the right of preëmption to actual settlers, (2) periodic reductions in price, (3) actual donations to such industrious persons as would cultivate the land for a given number of years. At first these measures were opposed; but Col. Benton presented them year after year, until the people began to understand them. President Jackson finally recommended their passage, and they were adopted. They helped to people the great West with a hardy, industrious, and energetic people, from whom have come the powerful States west of the great Mississippi.

461. Unparalleled Growth.—Jackson's administration was noted for its prosperity. Not a mile of railroad was in existence when he became President. When he passed out of office nearly three thousand miles were in successful operation. Canals, steamboats, and railroads were seen on every hand. The boats on the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers were little palaces, and this method of travel was remarkably popular. Manufactures were increasing on all sides. Louisville, Cincinnati, St. Louis, and New Orleans were bustling Western cities, while Chicago num-



Thomas H. Benton

bered about six hundred souls. The great poets, Longfellow, Whittier, Poe, Lowell, and Holmes, began to delight America; while Emerson, Simms, Hawthorne, and Bancroft were awakening a love for literature and history. Audubon of Louisiana began the publication of his magnificent monument to ornithology, while Henry and Morse finished the experiments which gave the world the telegraph. There were more newspapers in America at this time than in all Europe, and the attention of all sections was turned to the improvement of the schools. Webster's Dictionary took the place of Johnson's; and schoolbooks, periodicals, and apparatus were turned out in great quantities. McCormick, a citizen of Virginia, patented his reaper (1834). The French Academy of Science elected him to membership "as having done more for the cause of agriculture than any other living man."

462. New States.—Two new States were added to the Union in this term,—Arkansas (1836) and Michigan (1837).

463. Conventions.—The old method for the selection of presidential candidates was by a caucus of congressmen, or by conventions of delegates selected by the party organizations in each State. The first national convention for the nomination of a President was the National Anti-Masonic Convention of September, 1831; the second was the National Republican Convention of December, 1831; and the third the Democratic Convention of May, 1832. At this convention the rule requiring two thirds of all the delegates to nominate a candidate was adopted, and has been adhered to by all Democratic conventions since that day.

464. The Elections.—In 1832 Jackson was reelected President, with Martin Van Buren as Vice-President. The Whigs nominated Henry Clay and John Sergeant. The Anti-Masonic party nominated William Wirt and Amos Ellmaker, and carried the single State of Maine. In 1836 the chief Whig candidate was William H. Harrison of Ohio. The Democrats nominated Martin Van Buren and Richard M. Johnson, who were elected.

CHAPTER XLIII.

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION (1837-41).

Leading Events.

The Financial Crisis of 1837.
The Sub-Treasury Law (1839).
Attempts to annex Canada (1837).

Mormon Troubles in Missouri (1838).
Wilkes Exploring Expedition (1838).
First Antislavery Convention (1840).

465. The Financial Crisis of 1837.— Prosperity had blessed the country for twenty years. The desire to get rich blinded the



Martin Van Buren.

judgment, and men ran headlong into investments upon credit which led to failure and to ruin. Banks stopped specie payment, and a general lack of confidence followed. States had borrowed money in Europe to build turn-pikes and canals. These loans became due, and were not paid. The people had been trading on borrowed capital, and when pay day came around they had no money. Some of these asked time: others repudiated the debts.

All these things together brought a crash. Money was not to be had, and suffering ensued. Opponents of Gen. Jackson attributed the crash to the withdrawal of the deposits from the Bank

¹ Martin Van Buren was born at Kinderhook, N.Y., in 1782, and died in 1862. He held many positions in his native State between 1812 and 1819. The Republican (Democratic) party of New York was reorganized by him in 1818, and kept control of State affairs for twenty years. He was elected to the United States Senate in 1821, and again in 1827. He resigned in 1828 to become the governor of New York. Jackson appointed him secretary of state in 1829, which place he resigned in 1831 to become the minister to Great Britain. The Senate refused confirmation, and the Republican

of the United States, and their distribution to the State banks; but the great and controlling cause was the general creation of debt without prudent preparation for paying it. Wild projects¹ with certain loss made matters worse, and a panic ensued. Everybody lost confidence in the honor and solvency of the government, the State, and individuals. Notes, bonds, and paper money became worthless. Nothing but gold would be accepted; and there was not enough of this, even if its timid holders had permitted it to circulate. Eight States were bankrupt, and the government could not pay the interest on its bonds.

466. The Sub-Treasury Law.—As a precaution against the future recurrence of similar disasters, the government determined to take care of its own money. The President advised the establishment of an independent treasury at Washington, under the direct control of the government, with sub-treasuries in the larger cities. This was adopted, and is the law to-day.²

467. The Rebellion in Canada.—Canada was in rebellion against England (1837), and Americans along the border were anxious for her to succeed. Arms and supplies were sent to Canada. The President issued a proclamation commanding Americans to refrain from interference, and sent Gen. Scott to the frontier to see that the proclamation was enforced.

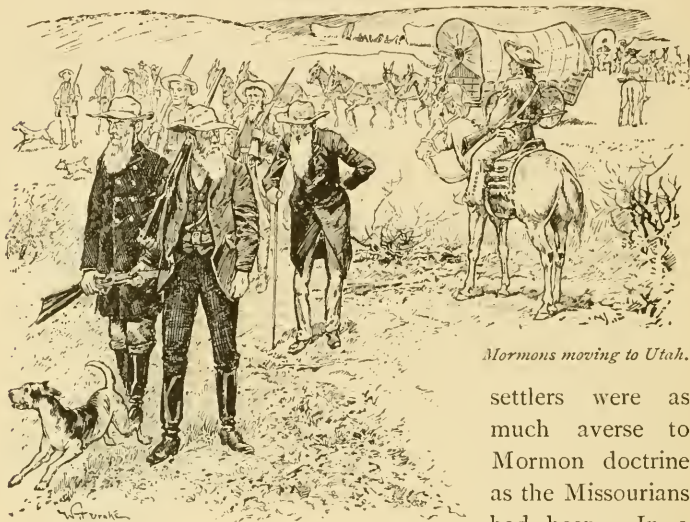
468. The Mormons.—Joseph Smith of Palmyra, N.Y., claimed (1830) that an angel from heaven had given him a new Bible, "The Book of Mormon." Its believers went to Kirtland, O., in 1831, and thence to Independence, Mo., where they founded their order, and began to build a Mormon temple.

party made him Vice-President. He thus presided over the body that refused to honor him. He withdrew from the Democratic party in 1848, and formed the "Free Democratic Party." He retired from politics after this year, and passed the rest of his life at Kinderhook.

¹ Cities in the woods were laid off, and sold at enormous prices. Towns that existed nowhere brought fabulous sums.

² This law was unpopular at first. It was passed in 1839, repealed in 1841, and reenacted in 1846. It has proved to be a good law.

But their practices gave offense to Missourians, and they were arrested, put into jail, and finally driven out of the State (1838). They crossed the river, and started a town at Nauvoo, Ill. About this time the doctrine of polygamy was introduced into their belief, which made them still more objectionable to men who loved the Bible and the old English law. The Illinois



Mormons moving to Utah.

settlers were as much averse to Mormon doctrine as the Missourians had been. In a riot, Joseph Smith was shot (1844), and Brigham Young, his successor, led the Mormons to what is now Utah. They arrived at Salt Lake in 1847, and founded Salt Lake City. They increased rapidly, and in 1849 organized a State which they called "Deseret," and demanded admission to the Union. Congress refused, but formed the country into a Territory.

469. Exploring Expedition.—In 1838 the first naval exploring expedition was sent out by the government from Norfolk, Va., under Capt. Wilkes. He discovered the Antarctic Continent, explored many islands and coasts, circumnavigated the globe, and returned in 1842.

470. Emigration.—Although steamships had scoured the oceans for many years, there were none acting as “carriers” with regular schedules of arrival and departure until 1840. The Cunard line of steamers was established this year, and was followed in rapid succession by other lines. These brought to our shores thousands of hardy emigrants from England, Ireland, Germany, and other countries. This soon led to the formation of emigration societies in the States to bring from Europe whole colonies of people. In this way the various townships of foreigners throughout the Mississippi Valley were formed. From 1840 to 1850 about two million emigrants found homes in America.

471. Antislavery Convention.—Denmark prohibited the slave trade in 1802, the United States in 1808, Great Britain in 1811, France in 1818. The Quakers in England had persistently opposed slavery, and were the first there and in America to bring it into disrepute. Great Britain had freed her slaves in August, 1838, after paying their owners twenty millions sterling. This precipitated the question with greater force in America; and an antislavery convention was held in 1840, which placed candidates in the field upon the single issue of the abolition of slavery. James G. Birney of New York was nominated for President, and Francis J. Lemoyne for Vice-President.

472. The Elections.—The Whigs at Harrisburg nominated William Henry Harrison of Ohio, and John Tyler of Virginia. The Democrats at Baltimore nominated Martin Van Buren for President, but could not agree on a candidate for the second place. The campaign was of unusual interest. “Glory to the hero of Tippecanoe,” “hard cider and log-cabin candidate,” were heard on all sides; while mimic log cabins, cider barrels, mugs, coon skins, and canoes were seen in all the Whig parades. “Tippecanoe and Tyler too,” brought out crowds, that “could only be estimated by the acre.” The Whigs elected their candidates by a large majority.

CHAPTER XLIV.

HARRISON-TYLER¹ ADMINISTRATION (1841-45).

Leading Events.

Tariff of 1842.
Slaveholders' Convention (1842).
Personal Liberty Bills (1841-44).
Ashburton Treaty (1842).

Magnetic Telegraph (1844).
Texan Independence (1837-45).
The Elections (1844).
New States.

473. Death of Harrison.—Gen. Harrison lived but a month after his inauguration as President, and was succeeded by John Tyler, the Vice-President, who acted with the Democrats.



William Henry Harrison.

474. Tariff of 1842.—According to the Compromise Act of 1833, this was the year when duties were to be regulated on a revenue standard. The agreement was ignored, however, by the manufacturing interest, and a tariff law passed by Congress which was regulated entirely by the principle of protection. This law was repealed in 1846 by a law which recognized the Compromise of 1833.

475. The Dorr Rebellion.—The Constitution of Rhode Island restricted suffrage to property holders and their oldest

¹ William Henry Harrison, the ninth President, was born in Virginia in 1773. Educated at Hampden-Sydney College, he entered the army in 1791 as aide-de-camp to "Mad Anthony" Wayne. In 1799 he was a delegate to Congress for the Northwest Territory, and was appointed governor of Indiana Territory in 1801, which place he held by successive reappointments until 1813. He defeated the Indians at Tippecanoe in 1811, and was made

sons. This gave Newport, with a small population, an advantage over Providence, with a greater number of people. To remedy this, the "Reform" party made a new constitution, and elected Thomas W. Dorr governor. The old party declared the whole proceeding irregular, and refused to give up the offices. The Reformers tried to seize the arsenal and other public property, but were put down by the "Law and Order" party, supported by United States troops. Dorr did not get the office, but the principles he advocated were adopted in 1843.



John Tyler.

476. Slaveholders' Convention.—From the beginning there was a feeling in the South that slavery did not suit a free country. Washington arranged in his will for the liberation of his slaves. In the Northern Colonies slave labor was not profitable, and the slaves were sold or made free. In some cases laws were passed for their gradual emancipation. Many, however, liberated them, and gave them homes. In the Southern States the slaves were far more numerous, and their labor profitable;

brigadier-general in 1812, and a major-general in the regular army in 1813. At the Thames he defeated the British. He was sent to Congress from Cincinnati in 1817, and to represent Ohio in the Senate in 1824. He was minister to the Republic of Colombia in 1828. He was defeated by Van Buren in 1836, and returned the compliment by defeating Van Buren in 1840.

John Tyler, the tenth President of the United States, was born in Virginia in 1790. He was in the Congress of 1816, and opposed the Tariff Bill and the Bank of the United States. He was elected governor of Virginia in 1825, and United States senator in 1827. He was originally a supporter of Jackson, but after the nullification proclamation he became his enemy. He refused to obey the request of the Virginia Legislature, which called upon Virginia senators to vote for expunging the resolution of censure against Jackson. He resigned, and joined the Whigs. After the death of Harrison, he became President, and quarreled with the Whigs. His cabinet resigned, excepting Daniel Webster, and he appointed a new one containing several Democrats.

yet in nearly every State from 1780 to 1830 there were constant manumissions. Parts of the South up to 1830 were gradually freeing their slaves; but this gradual work was too slow for certain men who hated slavery. Men in Massachusetts preached abolition on every corner. They spread tracts over the country, which were couched in language that stirred the blood. The mails carried these to the negroes, who started an insurrection at Southampton, Va., in which men, women, and children were murdered in their beds. The South was roused to arms, and soldiers were heard in town and country. Abolition societies were formed everywhere. The more prudent Northern men denounced the fanatics who were in the lead, and broke up their meetings. But the Abolitionists would listen to nobody. The result was a change of sentiment in all the Southern States. "If free negroes were to be excited into insurrection, there must be fewer free negroes," was the decision of the South. Then the first slaveholders' convention of the world met at Annapolis in 1842, and resolved to begin the work of restriction in self-defense. Other nations solved the slave question by gradual emancipation. This policy was prevented in the South by the frenzy of a few men who could not "learn to labor and to wait."¹

477. Personal Liberty Bills.—In 1832 Margarette Morgan, a slave, fled to Pennsylvania. She was arrested by an attorney, and taken back to Maryland. For this the attorney was arrested, and convicted in the Pennsylvania courts. The attorney appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States, where Judge Story held that the right to seize and retake fugitive slaves was under the Constitution an absolute right, uncontrollable by State legislation. Laws were passed by many Northern States, called "Personal Liberty Bills," nullifying this decision of the court.

¹ North Carolina changed her constitution in 1835, and took from free negroes who were freeholders the right of suffrage. Prior to this time a free negro with property could vote. Virginia and Ohio enacted statutes forbidding free negroes to enter their borders.

478. The Ashburton Treaty.—In 1842 Daniel Webster and Lord Ashburton negotiated a treaty, known as the “Ashburton Treaty,” which settled the boundary between the United States and Canada almost to the Rocky Mountains. This ended a long and bitter contest over the northeast boundary, and removed the danger of another war with Great Britain.

479. China.—President Tyler succeeded in establishing (1843) diplomatic relations with China, the first ever held by that people with any Christian State.

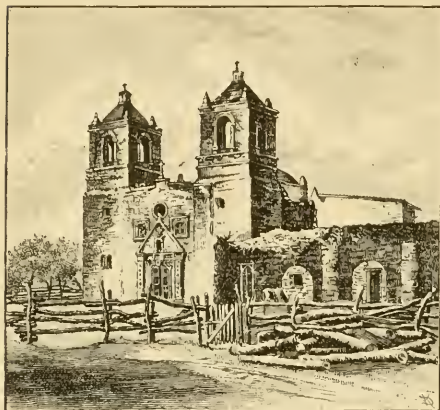
480. The Magnetic Telegraph.—The idea of using electricity for telegraphing was an old one, and its practical development is due to many experiments. S. F. B. Morse secured a patent for a magnetic telegraph in 1837, although his invention had been completed in 1832. In 1844 he had a line erected between Baltimore and Washington, over which a message was sent which proved the practicability of the invention. The first means of communication was the courier or messenger; then came the “post-horse” or the “post-chaise;” then “the railroad postal service.” Then the telegraph harnessed electricity to language, outran all the old means of communication, and destroyed distance at a single blow. The telegraph was a great help in another direction. It extended the work of newspapers. The news came more rapidly, creating a greater demand for more newspapers, which in turn created a demand for greater presses. In 1846 a cylinder printing press (Hoe’s Steam Printing Press) was patented, which printed both sides at once, and revolutionized newspaper work. These have been improved, until to-day the presses in the large newspaper offices turn off twenty-four thousand copies per hour.



S. F. B. Morse.

481. Texas.—After France ceded Louisiana to the United States in 1803, a dispute arose with the Spaniards as to the east-

ern boundary of Mexico.¹ The United States claimed west to the Rio Grande, and the Spaniards east to the Sabine. A com-



Concepcion Mission, Texas.

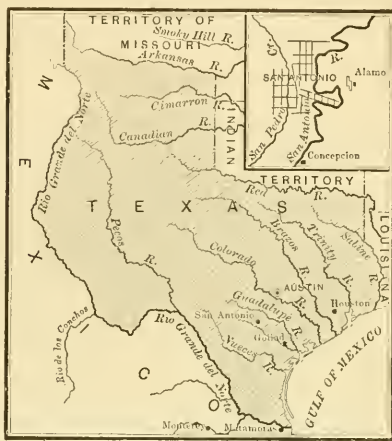
promise was made by which a narrow strip near the Sabine was to be neutral ground. But men from the United States constantly invaded this country, as they had invaded Indian lands. In 1813 the invaders were met by a Spanish army. The Spaniards were defeated, losing a thousand men. Another bloody battle oc-

curred that year, in which both sides were almost destroyed. In 1819 the Sabine River was made the western boundary of Louisiana by the United States.

482. Revolution in Texas.—Settlers from the United States took possession of the country (1820–33), and in 1833 decided to form a government independent of Mexico. They prepared a constitution, and attempted to set up a government. Santa Anna, the Mexican president, objected to these proceedings, and

¹ Texas has had an eventful history. The French in 1685, under La Salle, had wandered over it, and had built one fort, St. Louis. De Leon in 1690 had built the mission of San Francisco, on Matagorda Bay, on the site of the old fort. In 1693 these had all disappeared. Not discouraged, the Spaniards still planted the missions "like lighthouses along the coast." The name "New Philippines" was given to the country in 1715. The mission-houses were well built, and their adobe walls defied all assaults of the Comanche and Apache, as they have defied the assaults of modern artillery. These mission-houses have been compared, when looked at from a distance, to the war-worn castles of Europe. One mission near San Antonio stood a siege of eighteen months, and won the contest. They were the beginnings of the settlement of Texas.

war followed. Goliad was captured by the Texans, Oct. 9, 1835, and the battle of Concepcion was fought a little later. Spurred by these successes, they organized a provisional government, with Henry Smith as governor, and Gen. Sam. Houston as commander in chief. On Dec. 20 they issued a declaration of independence, and became a free State. Santa Anna determined to stamp out the treason, and, with seventy-five hundred men, started from Mexico in 1836 to crush the Texans.



483. Battles at San Antonio.—

The capture of San Antonio from the Mexicans (Dec. 10, 1835) was a memorable affair. Fifteen hundred men were attacked and defeated by the Texans with one fourth that number. Santa Anna then turned his army towards San Antonio. In the Alamo a garrison was placed, and from the walls streamed a blood-red flag which displayed the letters "T E X A S." Cooped up in that gloomy building were a hundred and eighty-three men, who for eleven days held Santa Anna and over seven thousand men at bay before their unerring rifles. Santa Anna resolved to carry the fort by storm, and at daylight on March 6 four thousand Mexicans charged, while the band played "Dequelo," which means "no quarter."

484. The Fall of the Alamo.—The first assault on three sides was turned back by the Texans without loss. The second charge met a second repulse. Behind bags of earth five feet high the Texans fought muzzle to muzzle with a vindictive foe. Santa Anna ordered the third charge, and led it himself. The

Mexicans reached the foot of the walls, and planted the ladders. There they paused, afraid to ascend. Pushed by the officers, they climbed to the top, only to be tumbled back in death, with the overturned ladders. Again and again this was repeated, new men taking the place of the old, until exhaustion overcame the brave heroes on the inside. The outside wall was gained by the



Attack on the Alamo.

Mexicans, but the same unyielding fight was repeated in the courtyard and in every room. Only six of the brave defenders were left; and these surrendered, and were shot down in cold blood. So perished the whole garrison. Not a man was left. The Alamo was captured. A thousand dead Mexicans covered the ground. "Death and Santa Anna held the Alamo." Mrs. Dickinson and her infant child, ever afterwards known as the "Child of the Alamo," and a negro servant, were the sole survivors.

485. Texan Independence.—Shortly after this, Gen. Sam. Houston defeated the Mexicans at San Jacinto. The Texans

shouted as they went into battle, "Remember the Alamo!" and fought for vengeance. Gen. Santa Anna was captured, and agreed to acknowledge Texas as an independent State if his life should be spared. The United States acknowledged the independence of Texas in 1837, and was followed by England, France, and Belgium. A monument to the heroes of the Alamo was erected in Austin, which bore these words: "Thermopylæ had her messenger of defeat; the Alamo had none." Texas remained independent until the summer of 1845, when it accepted the offer of annexation to the United States, which was made on the 1st of the preceding March.

486. The Elections.—The annexation of Texas was the chief question in the election of 1844. In 1840 the country drained by the Columbia River (sometimes called the Oregon) began to be settled. England claimed south to California, and we claimed north almost to Alaska. Webster had tried to fix the boundary at the 49th parallel, but neither country would agree to it. This question also entered into the election. The Democrats nominated James K. Polk of Tennessee, and George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania. The Whigs nominated Henry Clay of Kentucky, and Theodore Frelinghuysen of New Jersey. Polk stood for the annexation of Texas and the occupation of Oregon, claiming that we owned Oregon as far north as $54^{\circ} 40'$, and had acquired Texas in the Louisiana Purchase. The Democrats had two rallying cries,—“Polk and Texas!” and “Fifty-four forty, or fight!” Clay ran upon the American System and the United States Bank. The Abolition party voted again for James G. Birney. Polk lost his own State, but the vote of New York went for him, and elected him. The opposition in the North to Polk was based upon the fact that the admission of Texas would give one more slave State to the Union.

487. New State.—Florida was admitted in 1845.

CHAPTER XLV.

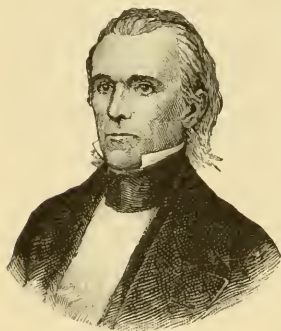
POLK'S¹ ADMINISTRATION (1845-49).

Leading Events.

Oregon Boundary settled (1846).
The Wilmot Proviso (1846).
The War with Mexico (1846-47).
New Mexico and California (1847).

Discovery of Gold (1848).
New States.
The Naval Academy (1845).
The Sewing Machine (1846).

488. The Oregon² Boundary.—Polk's administration was one of the most brilliant the country had witnessed. Early in 1846 a treaty was made with Great Britain by which the northwest boundary was determined. The secretary of state, James Buchanan, succeeded in having both nations agree to Webster's old line, the 49th parallel. This left nothing but the extreme northwest corner, or the Pacific inlets, to be determined. The treaty of Washington in 1871 completed this.



James K. Polk.

489. Dispute over the Texas Boundary.—The Texans claimed west to the Rio Grande, while Mexico claimed east to the Nueces. This dispute was transferred from Texas to the United

¹ James K. Polk was born in North Carolina in 1795. His family moved to Tennessee in 1806. He was graduated from the University of North Carolina, and studied law. He was in the Tennessee Legislature, 1823-25; a representative in Congress, 1825-39; twice elected speaker; and governor of Tennessee, 1839-43. He was always a strong supporter of Jackson. He died in 1849.

² The reoccupation of Oregon was one of the issues of the elections in 1844. The Democrats claimed this region for the United States through

States by the annexation. The army under Gen. Gaines had been sent to the Sabine River long before this, as an "army of observation." Gen. Taylor and his army now became an "army of occupation" to guard the disputed territory between the Nueces and the Rio Grande. Gen. Santa Anna ordered Gen. Taylor back to the Nueces under penalty of war. This did nothing more than to hasten the work of fortifying which Taylor had begun. The Mexicans crossed the Rio Grande, and captured a detachment of men. In the skirmish several Americans were killed, and Congress declared war on May 13, 1846.

490. Campaign of 1846.—The South and Southwest began to send forward large bodies of troops into Texas. "Old Rough and Ready," as the soldiers called Taylor, met the Mexicans at Palo Alto, May 8, and after a spirited engagement forced them to retire. The Mexicans took stand at Resaca de la Palma, where Taylor attacked them the day following, and routed them. Taylor transferred his army across the river, and began the invasion of Mexico. In August he advanced upon Monterey, which, though bravely defended by the Mexicans for three days, was surrendered on Sept. 24.

491. The Wilmot Proviso.—The North saw in this war nothing more than the acquisition of territory for the slave system. The President asked Congress to appropriate a sum of money to liquidate Mexican claims in the event of an early peace. While this was under discussion, David Wilmot introduced an amendment which brought the slave question into discussion again. The Wilmot Proviso made it an express and fundamental condition to the acquisition of any territory from Mexico, that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude should

(1) navigation of the Columbia River in 1792 by Capt. Gray of Boston, (2) the exploration of Lewis and Clark in 1805, (3) the settlement of John Jacob Astor at Astoria from 1811 to 1813. England captured Astoria in 1813. In 1818 a treaty was made in which England and the United States agreed not to make permanent settlements in the disputed region; but England failed to observe the treaty.

exist therein. The proviso failed, but nearly the whole session of Congress was devoted to the discussion of slavery.

492. Occupation of New Mexico and California.— Gen. Kearny was sent west to capture and occupy New Mexico and California. He marched from Fort Leavenworth in 1846 with eighteen hundred men, and without any opposition took possession of Santa Fé and all New Mexico. Leaving Col. Doniphan with a body of troops to maintain the authority of the United States, he pushed on into California with four hundred dragoons. Before he reached his destination, he heard that the flag of the United States had already been raised in that country by Capt. John C. Fremont, Commodore Stockton, and Commodore Sloat. Col. Doniphan, having left a small garrison at Santa Fé, marched south into Mexico, and united with Gen. Wool at Saltillo.



Gen. Taylor at Buena Vista.

493. Battle of Buena Vista (Feb. 23, 1847).— Taylor's army, having been weakened in order to strengthen Gen. Scott, who was attacking the enemy by way of Vera Cruz, was attacked

by Santa Anna with a force of twenty thousand men. Santa Anna first sent a demand to Taylor for an unconditional surrender. The answer returned was short and decisive: "Gen. Taylor never surrenders." The whole Mexican Army then massed itself against Taylor's left wing, only to be repulsed and routed. This victory left no enemy in this region, and all eyes were now turned to Vera Cruz and Mexico.

494. Gen. Scott's Campaign.—Gen. Scott landed his army near Vera Cruz, and after a severe bombardment captured the place on March 29, 1847. This victory was credited in large measure to the skill of Capt. Robert E. Lee, who afterwards and upon other fields won an undying renown. Scott defeated the Mexicans at Cerro Gordo in April, and entered La Puebla in May, where he remained until August, awaiting reënforcements. These having arrived, he pushed on towards the City of Mexico. On the 20th of August Scott's forces fought and won five battles: they stormed Contreras; they captured San Antonio; they stormed the two fortified heights of Churubusco; and they routed Santa Anna's entire army, which had marched out of the city to oppose them. Scott then approached the city, and on Sept. 8 the defenses to the Castle of Chapultepec, Molino del Rey, were stormed



Map of Eastern Mexico.

and taken by Gen. Worth. Five days later the battle raged with fearful fury at the gate of the city, where the strongest fort in Mexico, the Castle of Chapultepec itself, was stormed and captured. During the night the Mexican Army left the city, and the next morning the flag of the United States floated in triumph from the national palace. This ended the war.

495. Result of the War.—A treaty was made which ceded to the United States the country of New Mexico and California, and guaranteed the free navigation of the Gulf of California. The United States agreed to pay Mexico fifteen million dollars,



Map of United States in 1848.

and an additional sum of three million dollars to such citizens of the United States as were creditors of Mexico. This is known as the "Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo," from the little Mexican village in which it was arranged.

496. Discovery of Gold¹ (1848).—The attention of the world was directed to California by an occurrence that had little of martial glory connected with it, but from which that State gained a lasting position among the States of the Union. Gold

¹ The first gold mines worked by Americans were the "Reed Mines," in Cabarrus County, N.C.

was discovered in the foothills of the Sierras in the spring of 1848. All that year the story traveled through the States, and turned the minds of men to California. Thousands went West to dig gold. Some went around by Cape Horn: others started the emigrant trains across the Continent. No Indian massacre, no Mormon murder, no danger on sea or land, could stay the



Discovery of Gold.

migration. The gold "diggings" were expected to give everybody a fortune. In 1848 there were about four hundred people at San Francisco. Before the end of 1849 it was a thriving city of twenty thousand, and the country had a population of over eighty thousand. Thus California in four years jumped from a wilderness inhabited by a few Spaniards to a powerful American State.

497. California Constitution.— Before the civil arm of the American Government had been extended over this region, the people, under a call issued by Gen. Riley of the United States Army, elected delegates, who, at a convention held at Monterey

in 1849, framed a constitution, and submitted it for adoption. The people adopted it at once; and before the year was out, two men were on the way to Washington to demand the admission of California as a State, and to take their places as senators.

498. New States.—Texas was admitted Dec. 29, 1845; Iowa, in 1846; and Wisconsin, in 1848. This made thirty States, of which fifteen were slave States, and fifteen free. This made the representation in the Senate equal. No slave State was admitted after Texas.

499. Naval Academy at Annapolis.—This institution was founded (1845) by George Bancroft, Mr. Polk's secretary of the navy, and one of America's greatest historians.

500. The First Sewing-Machine (1846).—Elias Howe of Massachusetts, after many experiments, finished and patented a machine which changed the nature of sewing throughout the world. The slow needle, with its plodding stitches, gave way to the smooth and rapid machine. Walter Hunt of New York, Isaac Singer of Massachusetts, Allan Wilson of New York, William Grover of Boston, and James Gibbs, a farmer of Virginia, are all noted for prominent inventions connected with sewing-machines.

501. Elections.—Polk refused to be nominated for a second term, and the Democrats then nominated Lewis Cass of Michigan, and Gen. William O. Butler of Kentucky. The Whigs nominated Gen. Zachary Taylor of Louisiana, and Millard Fillmore of New York. The antislavery men formed a third party, called the "Free Soil" party, and nominated Martin Van Buren of New York, and Charles Francis Adams of Massachusetts. The Whigs had the electoral majority, although the Whigs and the Democrats each carried fifteen States. The Free Soil party did not receive an electoral vote nor carry a State. Seven Southern States voted for Taylor, and eight Northern States voted for Cass.

CHAPTER XLVI.

TAYLOR-FILLMORE ADMINISTRATION (1849-53.)

Leading Events.

Admission of California (1850).
Clay's Omnibus Bill (1850).
Fugitive-Slave Law (1850).

Death of Calhoun, Clay, and Webster.
Grinnell Expedition (1850).
First World's Fair (1851).

502. Admission of California.—The question of admitting California brought the subject of slavery before Congress again. The debates were violent in character, and all the old questions which threatened to divide the Union in 1820 were brought up again in discussion. The South claimed that the laws made at so many previous sessions, and the compromises adopted by all parties, settled these questions; but the ceaseless agitation had only embittered the partisans. President Taylor¹ recommended that California be admitted with the constitution she had framed. His death in July, 1850, increased the difficulties, for all parties had



Zachary Taylor.

¹ Zachary Taylor, the twelfth President of the United States, was born in Virginia in 1784, and died in 1850, one year and four months after his inauguration. He entered the army in 1808, and was made lieutenant, major, and then general. He was commander of the American forces in Louisiana and Texas at the breaking-out of the Mexican war, and beat the Mexicans in every battle. His honesty, courage, and good judgment endeared him to the people.

faith in his judgment and integrity. Fillmore¹ succeeded to the presidency, and advised a compromise. Clay had introduced a series of resolutions, which harmonized the sections, and have been called the crowning glory of his life.



Millard Fillmore.

503. The Omnibus Bill.—These resolutions received the name “Omnibus Bill,” and contained the following provisions: (1) the admission of California as a free State with her present boundaries; (2) the organization of the rest of the Mexican cession into the Territories Utah² and New Mexico, with nothing said

as to slavery; (3) the payment to Texas of ten million dollars to release her claim on New Mexico; (4) the abolition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia; and (5) the passage by Congress of a new fugitive-slave law. These measures passed, and California was admitted as a State on Sept. 9, 1850.

504. Fugitive-Slave Law.—Slave-owners along the border line were constantly losing slaves by escape into the free States. There were many people in these States who sheltered runaway negroes, and aided them to escape into Canada. They established the “underground railroad,” which was a secret system by which runaways could find places of concealment as they passed North. The Fugitive-Slave Law was passed (Sept. 18,

¹ Millard Fillmore, the thirteenth President of the United States, was born in New York in 1800, and died in 1874. He learned the trade of fuller, studied law, and taught school. His success at the bar sent him to Congress as an anti-Jackson man in 1832. He was reëlected as a Whig in 1836, 1838, and 1840. His great characteristic was industry, and attention to business. As chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, he was the chief author of the Tariff of '42. His State selected him as comptroller in 1847, and he became Vice-President in 1849. He approved the compromise of 1850, and signed the Fugitive-Slave Law.

² Utah included Nevada; and New Mexico, Arizona.

1850) to protect property rights of slaveholders, and gave the right (1) to pursue any fugitive slave into the free States; (2) to punish for concealing a runaway slave or assisting his escape.



Robert Toombs.
William H. Seward.

Henry S. Foote.
Alexander H. Stephens.
Salmon P. Chase.

Howell Cobb.
Charles Sumner.

505. Death of Calhoun, Clay, and Webster.— Calhoun,¹ Clay, and Webster, great leaders of great parties, were now well advanced in years. They had managed affairs with peculiar wisdom, and had always reached conclusions which quieted agitation. Clay and Webster had never placed themselves upon

¹ Calhoun died in March, 1850; Clay, in June, 1852; and Webster, in October, 1852.

either side of the slave controversy, but had always labored to sustain the Constitution and laws, and to heal the disturbances which afflicted the people. Calhoun favored slavery, but at all times fought along constitutional lines, and worked with Clay and Webster for peace. But new men now came to the front whose methods were not so pacific. The South had an array of aggressive leaders in Jefferson Davis, Henry S. Foote, Howell Cobb, Alexander H. Stephens, Robert Toombs, and others, who claimed the right to extend slavery over any of the Territories. The North had an equal array of talent and aggression in Charles Sumner, William H. Seward, Salmon P. Chase, and others, who opposed the further advance of slavery. It was a question upon which the best intellect and the best hearts of America were widely separated; and when the intellect and the heart of a nation divide upon a great question of principle, each actuated by motives that it considers entirely right, and neither willing to compromise, the only solution is war. To this great solver of political troubles America was now hastening. Webster's sad words, "We appear to be rushing on perils headlong, and with our eyes all open," were prophetic.

506. The Grinnell Expedition.—The government sent out a second expedition this year (1850) in search of Sir John Franklin. The expense was borne by Mr. Henry Grinnell, although the government supplied the officers. This expedition accomplished nothing so far as its main object was concerned. Another followed under the same auspices, with Dr. Kane as commander, which resulted in a greater geographical knowledge of the northern seas, but did not settle the fate of Franklin.

507. The World's Fair, London.—The Great Exhibition of London (1851) brought a greater number of people together in that city than had ever gathered there at one time before. Many Americans crossed the waters, and the spirit of international union was strengthened. In 1853 the first great exhibition in America was opened in New York in the "Crystal Palace."

This gathering was designed to exhibit the arts and industries of all people, especially those of the American Union. Association and acquaintance are the handmaids of interstate and international good will, and every "world's fair" aids civilization.

508. Continental Railroad.—Capt. William Gilpin, afterwards governor of Colorado, laid before James Buchanan, secretary of state in 1846, an account of his travels through the great West, and recommended three things: (1) a transcontinental mail route from Missouri to the mouth of the Columbia River; (2) steam communication with the Pacific by way of Panama; and (3) an overland railway to the Pacific coast. These propositions were laughed at in Congress, but they have all become realities, and by them the country has grown rich and powerful.

509. The Elections.—Both parties adopted platforms which assured the people that the compromise of 1850 was a final settlement of the slave question. The Democrats said, "The Democratic party will resist all attempts at renewing in Congress, or out of it, the agitation of the slavery question." The Whigs accepted the compromise as a settlement of the dangerous and exciting questions which it embraced. But the Whigs could not convince their party that it was right to obey the Fugitive-Slave Law. The Democrats nominated Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire, and William R. King of Alabama. The Whigs nominated Gen. Winfield Scott¹ of Virginia, and William A. Graham of North Carolina. The Free Soil party voted for John P. Hale of New Hampshire, but failed to carry a State. Franklin Pierce was elected, carrying every State but four.

¹ Winfield Scott was born in Virginia in 1786, and died in 1866. He was graduated at William and Mary College, studied law, and entered the army as a captain of artillery. He distinguished himself in the war of 1812 and in the Mexican war. He refused a seat in the cabinet as secretary of war. His wisdom averted trouble at Charleston, S.C., in 1833, during the nullification excitement, and again in the settlement of the boundary line between Maine and New Brunswick. He became commander in chief of the army in 1841. In 1859 he was one of the commissioners to settle the Northwest boundary line.

CHAPTER XLVII.

PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION (1853-57).

Leading Events.

The Gadsden Purchase (1853).
Personal Liberty Bills.
Kansas-Nebraska Bill (1854).

Kansas War (1854-56).
Treaty with Japan (1854).
Tariff of 1857.

510. The Gadsden Purchase.—One of the first acts of Pierce's¹ administration was the purchase from Mexico of a tract of land south of the Gila River (December, 1853). The price paid was ten million dollars. It was called the "Gadsden Purchase" after James Gadsden of South Carolina, who effected the agreement. This is now a part of Arizona and New Mexico.



Franklin Pierce.

511. Personal Liberty Bills.—After the people had ratified the compromise measures of 1850 by so large a majority, it was expected that the agitation would cease; but the Legislatures of several States now passed laws called "Personal Liberty Bills," which nullified the laws of Congress as to fugitive slaves. Every

¹ Franklin Pierce, the fourteenth President of the United States, was born in New Hampshire in 1804, and died in 1869. His father was a Revolutionary soldier, an intense admirer of Jefferson and Jackson, and led the Democratic party in his State, of which he was governor in 1827. As a farmer, he trained his children in the simple habits of honesty and industry. Franklin was sent to the best academies, and then to Bowdoin College. At twenty-nine he went to Congress, and four years later to the Senate, being the youngest member in that body. Resigning his seat in the Senate, he

slave entering one of these States became free, and it was made a misdemeanor by State laws to arrest one. The decision of Judge Story was denounced, and an effort made to set aside two departments of the Federal Government,—Congress and the Supreme Court.



Map of United States in 1853.

512. The Kansas-Nebraska Bill.—The principle established by the compromise of 1850 was that the Territories of the United States should be open to citizens of the United States for settlement, carrying with them whatever character of property they chose, and that each of these Territories should determine for itself what the character of its local government should be. A bill was introduced for the creation of Nebraska into a Territory. This was amended so as to provide for two Territories, —Kansas and Nebraska. Stephen A. Douglas¹ reported the bill back, with no provision as to slavery, in the exact language

went to New Hampshire to practice the profession of law. He refused all political offices, but maintained his influence in the councils of his party. He distinguished himself in the Mexican war, and throughout life his course of conduct was above suspicion.

¹ Stephen A. Douglas was born in Vermont in 1813, and died in 1861. He began the practice of law in Illinois in 1833, and soon became a popu-

that had been used in forming Utah and New Mexico in 1850. This bill passed both Houses of Congress by large majorities (March, 1854), and was called the "Squatter Sovereignty Law."

513. Kansas War.—The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill changed the policy of the Northern opposition. If the question was to be settled by the people in the Territories, a first duty of the North was to see that the people there were opposed to slavery. To insure this, they formed societies, called "Emigrant Aid Societies," to induce emigrants "of the right kind" to go to Kansas. Some of the Southerners retaliated by sending emigrants of a contrary belief. It was impossible to prevent collisions between these warring factions. Many lives were lost (1854-56), and an era of hate set in, which lasted a number of years.

514. The Know-Nothing Party.—A new party sprang up during this administration which assumed the name of the "American" party, but everybody called it the "Know-Nothing" party. Opposition to foreign influence in politics was its controlling idea. It advocated the doctrine that all foreigners should be required to reside in the country twenty-one years before voting. Its meetings were held in secret, and its growth was rapid in large cities. The secret pledge was not to vote for a Roman Catholic, nor for any man "unless he be an American-born citizen, in favor of Americans ruling America." The majority of the order could direct the vote of all the members. At Baltimore, Louisville, and other cities, a series of disgraceful

lar lawyer and orator. His great powers of debate earned him the name "Little Giant." He was judge of the Supreme Court in 1841, in Congress in 1843, and was twice a senator. He supported the compromise of 1850, and was the author of the doctrine that each Territory should be permitted to settle the question of slavery for itself. He opposed the admission of Kansas under the Lecompton Constitution. At the Charleston Convention in 1860 he had a hundred and forty-five votes,—three times as many as any other candidate for President, but not enough to nominate. At Baltimore, two months later, he was nominated by a wing of the party, and was defeated at the polls by Lincoln.

riots was brought on by this society, which in a few years destroyed it.

515. Treaty with Japan.—Commodore Perry succeeded in breaking down the wall of non-intercourse which had characterized the history of Japan, and obtained (1854) a treaty by which Japanese ports were opened to strangers. By this treaty and that made with China, all eastern Asia was opened to the “white-winged ships” of American commerce, and the influence of Christianity and civilization was carried to those shores.

516. The Elections.—The Democrats, in their platform, adhered to the territorial policy of 1850 as carried out in 1854. The Whig¹ party made no nomination, and passed out of politics. The antislavery men formed a new party, which took the name “Republican.” They stood for prohibition in the Territories, of “those twin relics of barbarism, polygamy and slavery.” The Democratic nominees were James Buchanan of Pennsylvania, and John C. Breckinridge² of Kentucky. The Republicans nominated John C. Fremont³ of California, and William L. Dayton of New Jersey. The Know-Nothings nominated Millard Fillmore of New York,



John C. Fremont.

¹ The Old Line Whigs — those who demanded that the old line 36° 30' be made the dividing line between the free and slave States — held a convention, but made no nominations save to indorse the Know-Nothing candidates.

² John C. Breckinridge was born in Kentucky in 1821, and died in 1875. He was twice elected to Congress. In 1860 he was nominated for the presidency by one wing of the Democratic party, and received the electoral vote of the Southern States. He was again elected to the Senate, and resigned to enter the Confederate Army. He gained honor at Stone River and at Chickamauga. He defeated Sigel at New Market, and, together with Early, defeated Sheridan's forces at Winchester. In courage, courtesy, and ability he had few superiors.

³ John C. Fremont, the “Pathfinder” of the Rocky Mountains, was born in Georgia in 1813. He was graduated at Charleston College, and with Nicollet began the exploration of the Upper Mississippi. In 1842 he began the exploration of the Rocky Mountains. He examined South Pass, and

and Andrew J. Donelson of Tennessee. Buchanan was elected, the antislavery majority in Congress was reversed, and the compromise of 1850 and the law of 1854 were emphatically indorsed the second time by the people.

517. The Tariff of 1857.—A measure which has been widely discussed throughout the country was passed by Congress March 3, 1857. This was a new tariff measure, which combined tariff for revenue with a tariff for incidental protection to home industries.

518. Literature (1800–50).—The great publication societies of the churches began to multiply books, papers, and tracts. The Bible societies sent agents into every township, and to every house in the land. Cities and towns in every State had literary and special associations which built schools and colleges. Lectures and schools gave information to both young and old. The daily and weekly newspapers carried the news to every county. Americans began to take place among the authors and thinkers of the earth. Marshall, Kent, and Story enriched the law; science boasted of Schoolcraft, Guyot, Agassiz, Audubon, Gray, Hitchcock, Maury, Henry, Morse, Haldeman, Hare, Harlan, Lewis, John and Joseph LeConte; poetry presented Halleck, Whittier, Poe, Longfellow, Bryant, Harvey, Hayne, and Simms; history had followers such as Bancroft, Hildreth, Lossing, Irving, and Prescott; fiction and essays were represented by Simms, Holland, Holmes, Irving, and Lowell.

ascended the highest peak of the Wind River Mountains, now Fremont Peak. The next year he explored the region around Great Salt Lake, and pressed on to Fort Vancouver near the mouth of the Columbia River. In 1861, as major-general in command of the department of Missouri, he issued an order emancipating the negroes, but was not supported by the President. He died in 1890.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION (1857-61).

Leading Events.

The Dred Scott Case (1857).

John Brown's Raid (1859).

The Election of Lincoln (1860).

The Effect on the South (1860).

Southern States secede (1860-61).

Admission of Kansas (1861).

The Peace Congress (1861).

The Confederate Government (1861).

519. The Dred Scott Case.—Mr. Buchanan¹ entered the White House with an earnest desire to harmonize the sectional differences; but it was not destined to be that way. Dred Scott, a negro slave, had been carried by his owner, in 1834, into Illinois and into the northern Territories. He claimed that this act made him free under the Missouri Compromise and the State laws. The Supreme Court of the United States held (March 6, 1857) that he was not a citizen, and dismissed the action. The antislavery men and the abolitionists were bitter in their denunciation of the court and of the slaveholding power. The court was represented as affirming that a negro "had no rights which the white man



James Buchanan.

¹ James Buchanan, the fifteenth President, was born in Pennsylvania in 1791, and died in 1868. He was called the "Bachelor President." He was graduated at Dickinson College in 1809; was twice elected to Congress, and twice to the Senate; was secretary of state under Polk; and was minister to England from 1853 to 1856. He believed that he had no right to coerce a State or to prevent its secession. His whole life was noted for a tenacious regard for the Constitution and the laws as he understood them.

was bound to respect." The court did not make this affirmation, but it made little difference.

520. Mountain Meadows Massacre.— In September, 1857, a hundred and twenty emigrants from Arkansas were murdered by a body of Mormons and Indians at Mountain Meadows, Utah Territory. This was one of the wealthiest emigration trains, in horses, mules, cattle, wagons, property, and money, that ever attempted to cross the plains, and it met the most horrible fate. Seventeen children under nine years of age were saved by the Mormons, and held in captivity until 1860, when they were returned to their relatives in Arkansas.

521. John Brown's Attack on Harper's Ferry.— John Brown had gone to Kansas to influence the people against



Capture of John Brown.

slavery, and had become notorious. In October, 1859, he astonished the country by seizing the United States Arsenal at Harper's Ferry in Virginia. His plan was to overthrow slavery by

kindling insurrections among the slaves. Gov. Wise of Virginia called out a large force of volunteers and the regular militia. Before the State troops reached Harper's Ferry, Brown and his men had been captured by Col. Robert E. Lee and a body of United States troops. Brown fought with desperation, and was only captured after being severely wounded. Thirteen of his followers were slain, and the remainder were tried and executed. About this time several cargoes of negroes were run into the country by some extreme Southern men, thus reviving the slave trade. The Dred Scott decision and John Brown's raid had more to do with the crystallization of sectional hatred at this time than all the congressional debates that had ever occurred.

522. Kansas. — Part of the people of this Territory met at Topeka, and formed a constitution (1855) which was rejected by Congress. Another constitution formed at Lecompton (1857) was adopted by the Senate, but rejected by the House. Another convention met at Wyandotte, and established a government which was finally recognized by Congress. Kansas was admitted as a free State on Jan. 29, 1861.

523. New States. — Minnesota was admitted in 1858, and Oregon in 1859.

524. The Elections. — One issue alone was before the American people in 1860. That issue was slavery. At the beginning of the contest the Democratic party separated into two wings. The Douglas wing said, "Slavery or no slavery in any Territory is entirely the affair of the white inhabitants of that Territory. Neither Congress nor the people of the country outside of that Territory have any right to meddle in the matter." The Breckinridge wing of the Democracy declared in its platform, "Congress is bound to protect the rights of all the slaveholders in all the Territories." The Republican party declared, "Congress is bound to prohibit slavery in, or exclude it from, every Federal Territory." The Union party declared for "the Constitution of

the country, the Union of the States, and the enforcement of the laws."

The first wing of the Democracy nominated Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois, and Herschel V. Johnson of Georgia. The second wing nominated John C. Breckinridge of Kentucky, and Joseph Lane of Oregon. The Republicans nominated Abraham Lincoln of Illinois, and Hannibal Hamlin of Maine. The Union party declared for John Bell of Tennessee, and Edward Everett of Massachusetts. Lincoln was elected by the votes of the States north of Mason and Dixon's Line, and was the first President elected exclusively by a single section of the Union.

525. The Effect on the South.—The election of the Republican candidate thoroughly alarmed the Southern leaders. The South loved the Union of States, for it was a Union under the Constitution adopted by their fathers. That Constitution, with its amendments, and the laws passed under and construed by it, was the basis of the Federal Union, and was the supreme law of the land. It bound the North and South equally. The South held, that (1) the Constitution recognized slavery; (2) it could not have been adopted without that recognition; (3) Southern influence had excluded slavery from the Northwest Territory; (4) an almost unanimous vote had provided for the return of fugitive slaves from the same Territory; (5) Southern influence had fixed the parallel $36^{\circ} 30'$ as the Northern limit of slavery in the Territories. The South claimed that the anti-slavery influence had (1) nullified the Missouri Compromise by the admission of California, and thus disturbed relations that had given peace for thirty years; (2) refused to stand by the principles they established in the compromise of 1850; (3) nullified the Ordinance of 1787 and other laws of Congress, and the decisions of the Supreme Court as to the return of fugitives; (4) organized societies whose chief object was to arouse insurrections among the slaves. Believing that their rights under the Constitution were in peril, the Southern States began to look about for a remedy.

526. South Carolina secedes.—Eleven Northern States had prohibited their officers or citizens from aiding in the execution of the fugitive-slave laws of 1793 and 1850. The tone of the Northern press, and the history of the antislavery men, led many in the Southern States, and especially in South Carolina, to the conclusion that it was better for them, and better for the free States, to separate. Two governments in peace were held to be better than one in discord. Accordingly South Carolina called a State convention, and on Dec. 20, 1860, passed an ordinance of secession. This ordinance dissolved all connection of South Carolina with the United States by repealing the ordinance of May 23, 1788, which ratified the Constitution.

527. Thirty-ninth Congress.—In the mean time Congress met, and President Buchanan sent in a message in which he asserted (1) that no State could withdraw from the Union, and (2) that there was no power to coerce, or force, a State. He advised concession and conciliation. The sentiment of the North now took two courses: one argued for Union and coercion, the other demanded no coercion. In the South there were two ideas also: one that the action of South Carolina was hasty; the other was "no coercion." Upon this latter the South was almost unanimous.

528. Other States secede.—Early in the year 1861 the coercion idea appeared to be gaining ground. As no State except South Carolina had pronounced itself, the danger did not seem so great. The country was again startled when Mississippi, on Jan. 9, followed South Carolina. This hastened matters, and, before Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated in March, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas had withdrawn from the Union.

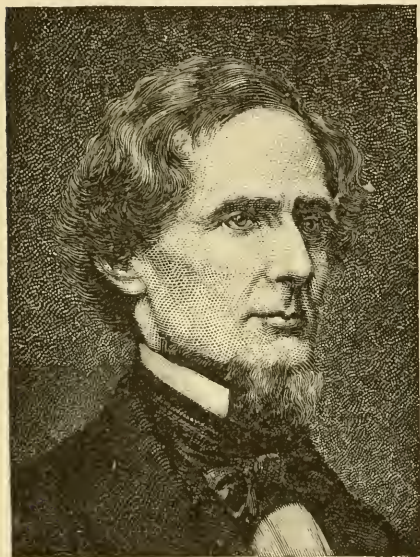
529. Offer to Compromise.—John J. Crittenden, an old-line Whig of Kentucky, offered as a compromise that a constitutional amendment be drawn, making the parallel $36^{\circ} 30'$ the line between the free and slave States. Petitions from all parts of the





Union were sent to Congress, asking that this compromise be adopted; but, as the Republicans would not agree to stand by this settlement, the last hope failed. Efforts were made in all the Southern States, by patriots who loved the Union, to have the ordinances of secession deferred until other means should be adopted to obtain redress. These men for the most part united their destinies with that of their States after they had withdrawn from the Union.

530. The Peace Congress.—The Legislature of Virginia, following the rule she had adopted in Revolutionary days, sent out a call to all the States of the Union, asking for a Congress



Jefferson Davis.

of delegates from the whole Union to devise ways by which the Union under the Constitution might be preserved. Early in February this body met in Washington, with delegates from twenty-one States. It disbanded without accomplishing anything.

531. The Confederate Government.—The delegates from the States that had passed ordinances of secession met at Montgomery, Ala., February 4, and adopted a constitution, for “The

Confederate States of America.” They elected Jefferson Davis¹ of Mississippi president, and Alexander H. Stephens of Georgia

¹ Jefferson Davis was born in Kentucky in 1808, and died in 1889. He was educated at Transylvania College and at West Point. He served in the

vice-president. This government was made permanent in March. The first capital was at Montgomery. The Constitution was modeled after the constitution of the United States.

532. The Seizure of the Forts.—On Dec. 26 Major Robert Anderson, who had been occupying Fort Moultrie near Charleston, evacuated that place, and took possession of Fort Sumter, a stronger fort, on an artificial island in the harbor. This created great excitement in Charleston, and was looked upon by Southerners as a breach of faith. Fort Moultrie was occupied at once by the South Carolinians. The Confederates proceeded to take possession of all the forts within their limits, and at the inauguration of Mr. Lincoln all of these save Forts Sumter and Pickens were held by the Confederacy.



Sketch of Charleston Harbor.

Black Hawk war and in the campaigns against the Pawnees. He was sent to Congress from Mississippi in 1845. When the Mexican war broke out, he resigned, and, as colonel of a Mississippi regiment, joined Gen. Taylor. He was in the battles of Monterey and Buena Vista, and was commended by Gen. Taylor for gallant conduct. After the war he was sent to the Senate, where he took a prominent position. During Pierce's administration he was secretary of war, and after this was again returned to the Senate. He resigned his seat in 1861, and without his knowledge was elected president of the provisional government of the Confederate States, and after this president of the Confederate States. With remarkable ability he conserved all the energies of this movement, and gave it a commanding place in the history of the world. His life after the war was uneventful. He died at Beauvoir, and was buried by the South.

Early History of Louisiana.

French Governors.

1. Sauvolle (1699-1701).
2. Bienville (1701-13).
3. Du Mnys.
4. Cadillac (1713-16).
5. De L'Epinay (1716-18).
6. Bienville, 2d term (1718-24).
7. Boisbriant (1724-26).
8. Périer (1726-32).
9. Bienville, 3d term, Father of Louisiana (1732-43).
10. De Vaudreuil (1743-53). Sugar cane introduced, 1751.
11. Kerlerec (1753-63). Louisiana ceded to Spain in 1762; all east of the Mississippi River, excepting the region south of Iberville River (Manchac Bayou), ceded to England. East Florida, with St. Augustine as its capital, already belonged to Spain. West Florida was occupied by the English at once, with Pensacola as capital.
12. D'Abbadie (1763-65).
13. Capt. Aubry (1765-66).
[After four years the Spanish take possession.]

Spanish Governors.

1. Ulloa (1766-68). Driven from the colony.
2. Capt. Aubry (1768-69). Assumed control.
3. Gen. O'Reilly (1769-70). Forced the French to submit.
4. Ynzaga (1770-77). Arms bought at New Orleans and shipped to patriots of Pennsylvania in 1776.

5. Galvez (1777-85). Captured the English posts at Manchac, Baton Rouge, and Natchez in 1779; Mobile and Pensacola in 1780. The Acadians and Creoles were foremost in these struggles. Louisianians boast of the part they took in the American Revolution.
6. Miro (1785-92).
7. Carondelet (1792-97). Free navigation of the Mississippi, with right of storage at New Orleans, granted to Americans (1795).
8. Gayoso de Lemos (1797-99).
9. Casacalvo (1799-1801). Louisiana ceded back to France by Treaty of St. Ildefonso, Oct. 1, 1800.
10. Salcedo (1801-03). (*a*) Right of storage at New Orleans suspended; (*b*) Americans forbidden to trade in Louisiana; (*c*) Americans become indignant and appeal to Jefferson, saying, "No protection, no allegiance;" (*d*) Treaty of Paris (April 30, 1803) ceded Louisiana to the United States. France took possession Nov. 30, 1803, and on Dec. 20, 1803, the United States assumed control.

American Territorial Governor.

- W. C. C. Claiborne (1804-12).
Admitted to the Union April 30, 1812.

Boundary of the United States.

Excluding Alaska, the northern boundary extends up the St. Croix River to its head, thence due north to the St. John River; thence up this river and its St. Francis branch to Lake Pohenagamook; thence southwest by an irregular line to the highlands which divide those rivers that empty into the St. Lawrence from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean; thence along the crest of those highlands to the northwesternmost head of the Connecticut River; down that river to and westward along the 45th parallel to and along the middle of the Ontario, Erie, Huron, Superior, and Long Lakes and their water connections to the most northwestern point of the Lake of the Woods; thence along the 49th parallel to the Pacific Ocean, the line at the northwest terminus excluding Vancouver's Island, but including the San Juan group. The southern boundary is the Gulf of Mexico, the Rio Grande up to latitude $31^{\circ} 47'$ north, and thence an irregular line running between the 31st and 33d parallels of latitude to the Pacific Ocean. The east and west boundaries are the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans respectively.

*Treaties and Acts which determined this Boundary.***The First Boundaries.**

1. Treaty of Paris (Nov. 30, 1782). { These settled the extent of the Thir-
2. Treaty of Paris (Sept. 3, 1783). { teen States and their Western lands.
3. Treaty with Spain at San Lorenzo el Real (Oct. 27, 1795). This settled the western and southern boundaries.

Northern Boundary.

4. Treaty with England at London (Nov. 19, 1794). This determined the source of the Mississippi, and what river was the St. Croix of the treaty of Sept. 3, 1783.
5. Treaty of Ghent with England (Dec. 24, 1814). This fixed the line with reference to the islands off the coast of Maine, and attempted to fix the line from the head of the St. Croix to the St. Lawrence.
6. Treaty of London (Oct. 19, 1818). This fixed the 49th parallel as a boundary from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains.
7. Treaty of Washington with Spain (Feb. 22, 1819). This ceded all Spanish claims to Oregon to the United States.
8. Treaty of St. Petersburg with Russia (April 5-17, 1824). This fixed the southern boundary of Russian America at latitude $54^{\circ} 40'$.
9. Treaty of London (Sept. 29, 1827). This treaty referred the disputed line of the St. Petersburg treaty to the King of the Netherlands, who made an award which was rejected by both nations.

10. Treaty of Washington, or the Webster-Ashburton Treaty (Aug. 9, 1842). This fixed the present line from the Atlantic Ocean to the Rocky Mountains.
11. Treaty of Washington, or the Oregon Treaty (June 15, 1846). This settled the line from the Rocky Mountains to the channel separating Vancouver's Island from the Continent.
12. Treaty of Washington (May 8, 1871). This left the Northwestern boundary dispute to the Emperor of Germany, who decided that the channel referred to in the preceding treaty was the Canal de Haro, as claimed by the United States.

Eastern Boundary.

13. Treaty of Paris (Sept. 3, 1783).
14. Treaty of Washington with Spain (Feb. 22, 1819).

Western Boundary.

15. Treaty of Paris (April 30, 1803). This treaty, together with the discovery of Capt. Gray (1791), purchase from France, and purchase from Spain of the Floridas (Feb. 20, 1819), settled the western boundary from north latitude 49° going south.
16. Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo with Mexico (Feb. 2, 1848). This, with what was captured, fixed the western boundary from 42° north going south.

Southern Boundary.

17. Treaty of Paris with Great Britain (Sept. 3, 1783).
18. Treaty of Paris with France (April 30, 1803).
19. Treaty of Washington with Spain (Feb. 22, 1819).
20. Resolution of Congress (March 1, 1845). By this, Texas was annexed.
21. Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo (Feb. 2, 1848).
22. Gadsden Purchase (Dec. 30, 1853).

Boundaries of Alaska.

23. Treaty of Washington (March 30, 1867).

PART VII.—THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY WAR.

CHAPTER XLIX.

LINCOLN'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION (1861-65).

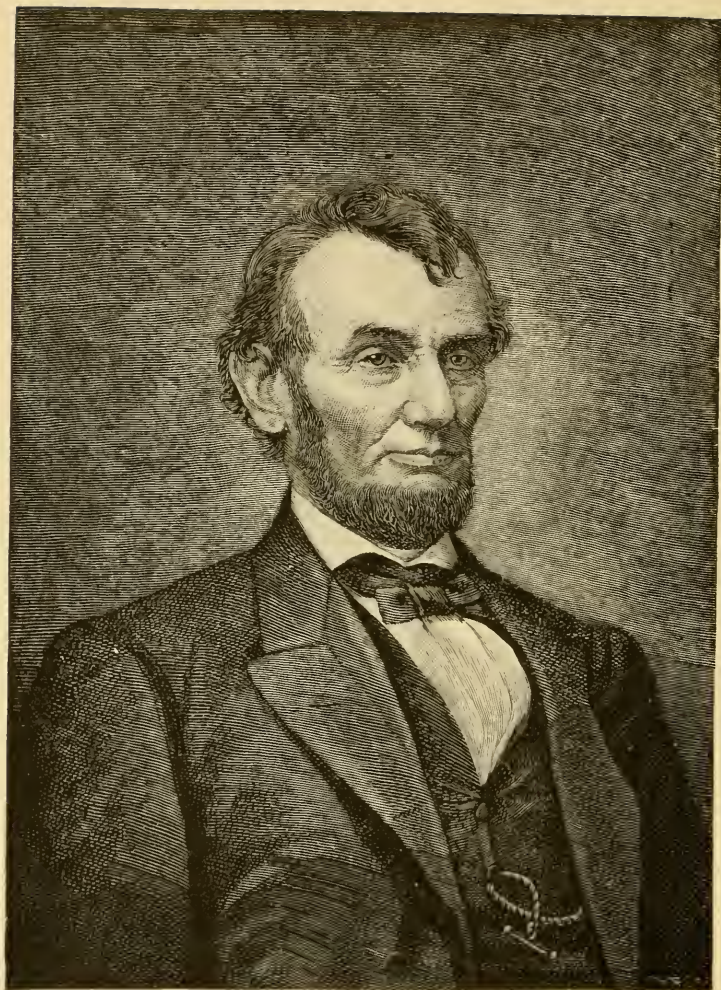
Leading Events of 1861.

Bombardment of Fort Sumter.
The Call for Volunteers.
Federal Success in West Virginia.
Battle of Manassas Junction.

Blockade of Southern Ports.
Affair of the "Trent."
Affairs in Kentucky.
Campaign in Missouri.

533. The Inauguration.—Mr. Lincoln¹ was sworn in on the 4th of March, 1861, by Chief Justice Taney. In the address

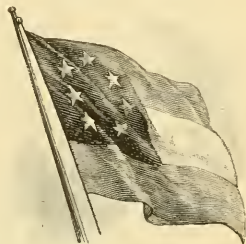
¹ Abraham Lincoln, the sixteenth President, was born in a log cabin in Kentucky in 1809, and died in 1865. Hard work was his boyhood lot. In the log schoolhouses of Indiana he learned reading, writing, and arithmetic. He read everything the neighborhood afforded. He was a tall, raw-boned youth, and uncouth in appearance. Moving to Illinois, he helped to build the log house his father owned, and split the rails that surrounded it. Trips on a flat boat to New Orleans, service in the Black Hawk war, work as clerk in a store or mill, or piloting a steamboat, introduced him to the large world without. Storekeeper, deputy surveyor, and postmaster were stations he tried to honor, but which denied him a support. With a copy of Blackstone he learned grammar and law, and became the jurist of the neighborhood. In a suit of Kentucky jeans he ran for the Legislature, and was elected. He distinguished himself in the work of giving the State a system of general improvements. His upright character, more than his power as an advocate, gave him a great practice, and led his neighbors to call him "Honest Abe Lincoln." In 1847 he went to Congress, and voted to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia, and for the Wilmot Proviso. In the great campaign between him and Douglas in 1858, Lincoln won a national reputation as a debater. This was the simple, honest man that was confronted on his induction into office by the greatest revolution in history. Lincoln first won the love of the people, then the respect and love of the ruling class in his own party, and at last the confidence of his enemies.



Abraham Lincoln.

that followed he said, "I have no purpose, directly or indirectly, to interfere with the institution of slavery in the States where it exists. I believe I have no lawful right to do so; and I have no inclination to do so."

534. Bombardment of Fort Sumter.—Before long a squadron of seven ships left New York under sealed orders to reënforce and provision Fort Sumter—"peaceably if permitted, otherwise by force." This was considered by the South bad faith, inasmuch as a promise had been given by the government that Fort Sumter should be evacuated. On the 8th of April, after the fleet had started, notice was given to Gov. Pickens of South Carolina that the policy of the administration had been changed. This enraged the South, and was treated as a declaration of war against the Confederate States. Gov. Pickens notified Gen. Beauregard, who was in command of about six thousand volunteers at Charleston; and on April 12, at 4.30 A. M., these forces opened fire on Fort Sumter, which was returned by Major Anderson. The bombardment lasted thirty-two hours, when Major Anderson capitulated. The United States troops were permitted to march out with all the honors of war. Not a life was lost. From these two acts—the sailing of a fleet from New York, and the firing upon Fort Sumter—began a war which in all truth was one of the most tremendous conflicts on record. Each side charged the other with striking the first blow.



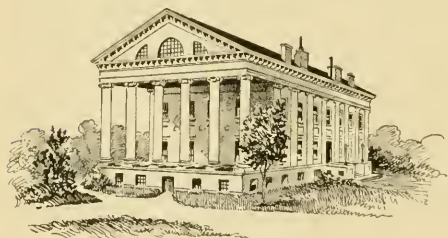
Confederate Flag.

535. The Call for Volunteers.—Mr. Lincoln issued a call for seventy-five thousand troops to serve for three months, and convened Congress in extra session. The Confederate Government answered by a counter call for volunteers to repel invasions. No aggressive war was to be instituted by the Confederacy, but all attempts to coerce the seceded States by invasion of their soil

were to be met with force. The Confederates also adopted a flag, which soon came to be known everywhere as the "Stars and Bars." Virginia, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Tennessee withdrew from the United States, and joined the Confederacy. In both sections volunteers were numerous, and in a short time whole regiments were moving to the seat of war. The Virginia soldiers seized the Norfolk navy-yard with all its stores, and the Federal commander at Harper's Ferry burned the arsenal, and evacuated the place.

536. Bloodshed in Baltimore.—Maryland held that she had no right to secede, or to join in an effort to subdue the South; and she demanded that her soil should not be touched by any hostile force. Troops from the North entered the State on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and were met in Baltimore by an excited populace. Despite all efforts of the mayor and police, the troops were attacked with stones and other missiles. Several men were killed on both sides. This occurred on the 19th of

April, and created great excitement throughout the country. News reached Baltimore that more troops were on the way to destroy the city. The whole population rose in arms, without regard to party, to defend the city. The government decided to



Confederate Capitol, Richmond, Va.

avoid the shedding of blood, and moved the troops by another route.

537. Getting Ready.—The Confederates moved their capital to Richmond, Va., to be nearer the seat of war. Mr. Davis appointed Gen. Beauregard to command the Army of the Potomac; Gen. Joseph E. Johnston, that of the Shenandoah; and

Gen. R. S. Garnett, that in West Virginia. The Federal Army was in charge of Gen. Winfield Scott. The Federal troops had been called out for three months, and it was believed in the North that the South would be conquered within that time. The South believed that after a few battles the North would tire of the war, and permit it to go in peace. Both sides singularly mistook the power and endurance of the men they opposed. The Federal Congress in July agreed to call out 525,000 men, and appropriated \$500,000,000 to equip and provision this mighty force. The South¹ could not do things upon a scale so grand as this, but she did her best with tremendous energy.

538. Seizure of Alexandria.—Col. Ellsworth entered Alexandria, and took possession of the chief hotel. While taking down the “stars and bars” preparatory to running up the “stars and stripes,” he was shot dead by the proprietor, who was instantly killed by Ellsworth’s zouaves. The Union forces retained the town.

539. Engagements in West Virginia.—On June 3, Gen. Morris repulsed the Confederates at Philippi, W. Va. Gen. George B. McClellan then took command of the Union forces, and gained a victory at Rich Mountain (July 11). At Carrick’s Ford the Confederates were routed, and lost everything, including Gen. Garnett, who was killed July 14. Gen. Floyd, with a detachment of Confederate troops, was attacked at Carnifex Ferry, and forced to retreat (Sept. 10). Gen. McClellan now took command of the Federal Army of the Potomac, Gen. Rosecrans of the Union forces in West Virginia, while Gen. W. W. Loring, under Gen. R. E. Lee, succeeded to Garnett’s Confederate command (Sept. 14). Lee failed in an elaborate attempt to drive Rosecrans from Cheat Mountain, and the latter successfully evaded a subsequent concentration of the Southern forces.

¹ In 1860 the population of the Union States was about 23,000,000: the Confederate States had about 9,000,000, of which nearly 4,000,000 were slaves.

These actions, so vigorously prosecuted by the Union armies, gave the United States complete possession of West Virginia, and a provisional government was organized at once. This lost ground was never regained by the Confederacy, and resulted at last in the separation of this region from Virginia, and its erection into an independent State under the name of "West Virginia" (June, 1863).

540. The Virginia Campaign. *Big Bethel.*—Gen. Benjamin F. Butler, in command at Fortress Monroe, sent a detachment of troops to drive the Confederates under Gen. Magruder from Big Bethel. This detachment was met by Gen. D. H. Hill, and repulsed with loss (June 10).¹



First Battle of Manassas.

Manassas Junction.—We now approach the great battle of the year. When Gen. Scott finished the organization of the grand army, sixty thousand strong,—“the largest and best equipped ever seen in America perhaps,”—he placed it in command of Major-Gen. Irwin McDowell, one of the most skillful tacticians of the day, and pushed it across the Potomac upon Virginia soil.

This large army moved slowly. Its left wing was attacked by Gen. Beauregard at Bull Run, July 18, and was forced back. On the 21st, McDowell confronted the Confederate Army near Manassas² Junction. The battle was severe, and at noon the

¹ North Carolina entered the struggle after mature deliberation, and was the first to repel the invasion of Southern soil, as also the first to suffer. One life was lost in this battle on the Southern side, Henry Wyatt of Edgecombe County, N.C.,—the first Southern soldier slain in the war.

² This battle was called by the Confederates the battle of Manassas; by the Federals, Bull Run.

tide of victory was with McDowell. Part of the Confederates were in full retreat, crushed by the superior force of the enemy. Gen. Jackson's brigade stood its ground, while column after column of Confederates rolled back in confusion. Gen. Bee galloped up to Jackson, and said, "General, they are beating us back." As calmly as if before his college class, Jackson answered, "Sir, we will give them the bayonet." Galloping back to his men, Bee shouted, "Look at Jackson! He stands like a stone wall! Let us determine to die



Stonewall Jackson.

here, and we will conquer!" The men rallied under the stirring call, and wheeled round into the fight.

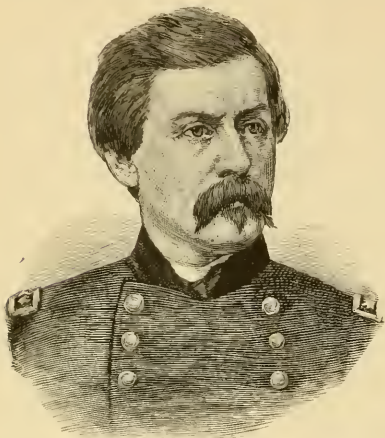
The bayonets of Jackson gleaming in the sun checked the victorious Federal Army, and his men hailed him in cheers with this battle-tipped name, "Stonewall Jackson," which became at once and forever the name of one of the greatest Southern generals.

Meanwhile Kirby Smith and the expected army of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston arrived, and turned the tide of war. The Union Army was turned back and completely routed, not stopping its course till safely beyond the Potomac.

Ball's Bluff.—Two thousand men were thrown across the Potomac into Virginia at Ball's Bluff, and were attacked (Oct. 21) by the Confederate forces under Gen. Evans, and routed with a loss of about half their number.

541. The Effect.—"The victory at Manassas was followed by a period of inactivity and of fancied security," says Mrs.

Davis. Many in the South thought that this battle ended the war. Enlistments decreased, and a false confidence followed.



George B. McClellan.

But the leaders on both sides knew that the end was not yet. "More men!" was the cry throughout the North and South; and each side began the work of drilling the troops, and preparing them for the work of the next year. Gen. Scott resigned the chief command of the Federal Army; and Gen. George B. McClellan, the successful commander in West Virginia, succeeded him. All through the winter the people North and

South heard the single cry, "All is quiet along the Potomac," and wondered what 1862 would bring to pass.

542. The Blockade.—Never, perhaps, were the resources of the American Government shown more conspicuously than in effecting the blockade of the Southern ports. The coast line of the South was so long and intricate, that to blockade it seemed impossible even to men skilled in war. Men and money were put to work, and in a short time the blockade became a serious impediment to the South. Armed vessels were stationed at the mouth of the Mississippi and before the leading Southern ports. The South had neither ships nor sailors. The products of the South were thus cooped up at home, and could not be used in obtaining money, war stores, or implements. In this emergency, hundreds of independent vessels entered the bays, rivers, and creeks to carry on trade with the South, despite the obstructions. These were called "blockade runners." If caught, both craft and cargo were confiscated; and the chases after



Blockade Runner.

them made by the United States steamers form a very romantic side to the horrors of the war.

543. Privateers.—As a retaliation for closing Southern ports, the Confederate States issued “letters of marque” to privateers, which authorized them to seize and confiscate the merchant ships of the United States. These privateers were as destructive to Northern commerce as the blockade was to the South.

544. The “Trent” Affair.—An event occurred in November which brought the United States to the verge of war with Great Britain. The Confederate States sent Messrs. Mason and Slidell as envoys to England. These men had taken passage on the English mail steamer “Trent,” and were taken from that vessel and made prisoners of war by Capt. Wilkes of the United States sloop “San Jacinto.” This was claiming a right of search for the United States. The action caused great indignation in England, and that nation demanded that the prisoners be given up. The United States disavowed the act, and set the envoys

free. Many persons in the North objected to this; but Mr. Lincoln was firm, saying, "We fought Great Britain in 1812 for doing just what Capt. Wilkes has done. We must give up the prisoners to England."

545. Kentucky had decided "to stand like a wall of fire between the contending forces." Neutrality, however, was impossible. Her leading citizens were in sympathy with their Southern friends, and soon became active supporters of the Confederate States. This stimulated the Union men, and enlistments went on openly for both governments. Families were divided, brothers were opposed to each other in deadly combat, and life-long friendships were turned into bitter enmity and hatred. Such were the terrible ordeals of Kentucky and the other border States. Bishop Leonidas Polk of Louisiana marched into western Kentucky, and took possession of Columbus. Belmont in Missouri was occupied, and the passage of the Mississippi placed under the control of the Confederates. Gen. Ulysses S. Grant, with a detachment of Illinois troops, crossed into Missouri, and made an unsuccessful attempt to take Belmont.

546. Missouri was kept in the Union by the united efforts of Capt. Lyon and Francis P. Blair. Gov. Jackson, who sided with the South, called out fifty thousand men, and named Sterling Price as their general. The following events occurred in rapid succession: (1) Capt. Lyon broke up Camp Jackson, (2) he defeated Gov. Jackson at Boonville (June 17), (3) Col. Sigel was, however, defeated in a severe engagement at Carthage (July 5).

Placed in chief command, Lyon attacked (Aug. 10) the combined forces of Gens. McCullough and Price at Oak Hills or Wilson's Creek. The victory seemed to incline towards Lyon at first, but at the critical moment a stand was taken by a detachment of Arkansas and Louisiana troops which saved the day to the South. The Federal troops retreated, having lost their leader, the brave Gen. Lyon.

CHAPTER L.

LINCOLN'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION, *Continued.*

Leading Events of 1862.

"Virginia" and "Monitor."
Peninsular Campaign.
Stonewall Jackson's Raid.
Second Battle of Manassas.
Invasion of Maryland.

Fredericksburg.
Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing.
Fall of New Orleans.
Invasion of Kentucky.
Murfreesboro, or Stone River.

547. Disaster to the Confederacy.—Operations began early in 1862, and in nearly every engagement in the West the Union forces were successful. At Mill Springs, Ky., Gens. Crittenden and Zollicoffer were defeated (Jan. 19) with great loss by Gen. George H. Thomas.

In a battle of great severity fought (March 7, 8) at Pea Ridge, Ark., the Confederates under Price and McCullough won a victory over Gens. Curtis and Sigel; but for some unknown reason a retreat began just as the Federals were discussing a retreat. This fight is therefore called "a drawn battle." The Confederates lost Gens. McCullough and McIntosh, the idols of the army of the West. During the year all northern Arkansas fell into Federal hands.

Gen. Burnside, supported by a squadron of war vessels, captured Roanoke Island, and gained control of the coast of North Carolina (March).

548. The "Virginia" and the "Monitor."—Amidst these reverses the Southerners were electrified by the operations of a strange craft which had been constructed by the Confederates at Norfolk. The frigate "Merrimac," a sunken ship, had been raised, covered over with bars of railroad iron, and sent out to attack the Union fleet in Hampton Roads, between Norfolk and

Fortress Monroe. In her new dress and new name, the "Virginia" achieved an undying fame. She attacked the war ship "Cumberland," and sank it. Then turning on the "Congress," the "Virginia" forced her to strike her colors, after which she was burned. The wooden men-of-war could do nothing with the iron vessel, and got out of the way. During the night a Union ironclad, called the "Monitor," entered Hampton Roads, and on the next day (March 9) the first fight in the world's his-



"Virginia" and "Monitor."

tory, between ironclad war vessels, took place. For five hours the fight went on, and closed at last with victory inclining to neither side. The "Monitor" retired to shallow water, and the "Virginia" returned to Norfolk. The arrival of the "Monitor" saved the Union fleet, and stopped the progress of a vessel that would have opened up the blockade in a short time. The "Virginia" was blown up when the Confederates evacuated Norfolk, and the "Monitor" went down at sea in a storm at the end of the year.

549. The Peninsular Campaign. — McClellan had an army around Washington of nearly two hundred thousand men, called the "Army of the Potomac." Opposed to him was Gen. Joseph E. Johnston with a force not half so large. McClellan left his camps on March 10, and set out to capture Richmond. After reaching Manassas Junction, he concluded to take a shorter route, and sent about half his army to Fortress Monroe, leaving McDowell in command of the remainder. In twenty-five days the landing was completed, and the march begun to Yorktown. Here the Confederates held McClellan thirty days before evacuating the place. Meanwhile Johnston had marched southward to protect the capital. Gen. Wool then moved upon Norfolk, which was evacuated at once. This left the James River open for the passage of boats to Richmond. McClellan defeated a detachment of Confederates at Williamsburg, and four days afterwards was equally successful at West Point. This left the way open to the Chickahominy, ten miles from Richmond, which stream was reached and crossed by McClellan and a large part of his army.

550. Battle of Seven Pines and Fair Oaks. —

Gen. Joseph E. Johnston attacked McClellan at Seven Pines and Fair Oaks (May 31 and June 1) while his army was divided by the Chickahominy, and succeeded in driving him back with great loss. The timely advance of Gen. Sumner saved the Union



Joseph E. Johnston.

Army from a rout. Gen. Johnston being severely wounded, the command devolved upon Gen. Robert E. Lee, who remained at the head of the army of northern Virginia till the end of the war.

551. The Valley Campaign (March 23 to June 9).—

The Southern Army around Richmond needed reënforcements, and in obtaining them two other things were effected: (1) McDowell's army was prevented from helping McClellan, and (2) Washington City was threatened with an attack. To do these things, Gen. Stonewall Jackson was sent up the valley of Virginia. His movements were successful, and won the admiration of friend and foe. The Federal commander had sent a strong division southward into the Shenandoah valley. Jackson moved rapidly toward the Blue Ridge, routed Fremont and McDowell, then entered the Shenandoah and drove Banks down the valley and out of Virginia. Turning back, he again hurled Fremont

out of his way at Cross Keys, pushed on to Port Republic, where he attacked Gen. Shields, defeated him, and reached Richmond in time for the Seven-Days' Battle. This brilliant movement kept McDowell at Fredericksburg, where he could be of no service whatever to McClellan.¹



Gen. J. E. B. Stuart.

552. Stuart's Ride.—

Gen. J. E. B. Stuart, with his cavalry corps, was detached by Gen. Lee to annoy Gen. McClellan. He rode clear around McClellan's army,

tearing up railroads, destroying supplies, and alarming the Federal forces (June 13).

¹ Stonewall Jackson, with an army of not more than 15,000, had marched 400 miles in 40 days, capturing 3,500 prisoners, and leaving as many more dead or disabled on the field, besides defeating 4 separate armies aggregating at least 45,000 men.

553. The Seven Days' Battles (June 25 to July 1).—

Gen. Lee resolved to begin offensive operations for the relief of Richmond. Jackson, fresh from his victories in the Valley, was at hand, and McClellan's army was divided by the Chickahominy. McClellan at the same time decided to advance, and on June 25 attacked Lee at Oak Grove, but without advantage. On June 26 Lee captured Mechanicsville and assaulted the strong Union forces at Beaver Dam. He was repulsed with severe loss, but succeeded in forcing McClellan to retire to Gaines Mill (sometimes called Cold Harbor and the Chickahominy), where, June 27, a victory was gained by the Confederates. McClellan then resolved to change his base of operations to the James, and he effected his purpose with masterly skill. Lee pursued with vigor, repulsed the Union forces at Savage's Station (June 29), and gained a victory at Frazier's Farm (June 30). McClellan reached Malvern Hill (July 1), where he was unsuccessfully attacked by Lee. During the night McClellan withdrew to Harrison's Landing, thus successfully maintaining his retreat and saving his army. Lee had saved Richmond and had driven back the largest army that had ever been seen in America.¹ He had also captured 10,000 prisoners, 52 pieces of artillery, and 30,000 stand of arms.



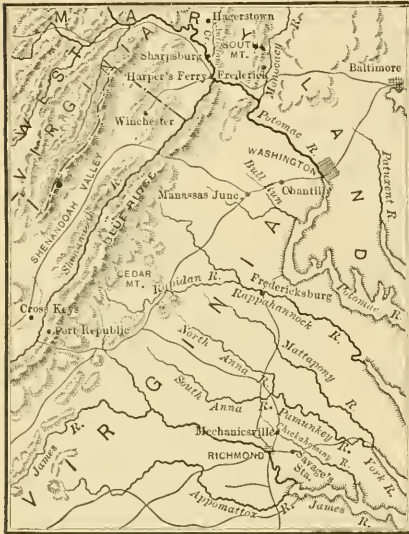
SCALE OF MILES 0 1 2 3 4 5
Vicinity of Richmond.

554. The Effect.—Gen. Halleck succeeded McClellan as commander-in-chief of the Union armies. President Lincoln or-

¹ Lee's force was the largest he ever had,—80,000 men and 150 guns. McClellan placed his fighting force at 105,825, with 340 fieldpieces.

dered a new levy of six hundred thousand men, and began the discussion of purchasing the slaves of such States as should abandon the war. The enormous price required soon occasioned the abandonment of this plan.

555. Second Battle of Manassas, or Bull Run.—Meanwhile Lee turned northward. A new Union army had been



SCALE OF MILES 0 10 20 30 40 60

Second Battle of Manassas.

formed to fall on Richmond from the north, and placed under the command of Gen. Pope. Gen. Banks attacked Gen. Jackson at Cedar Mountain (Aug. 9) and was defeated. There were engagements at Gainesville, Thoroughfare Gap, and Groveton, in the latter part of August, which were honorable to both armies. Lee then got into the rear of the Union Army, where, after two days of hard fighting (Aug. 29, 30), it was routed on the old Manassas battlefield.

At Chantilly (Ox Hill, Sept. 1), Pope's army suffered another reverse, and retreated to the lines at Centerville, where it was merged into McClellan's force, Pope being relieved.

556. The Invasion of Maryland.—Lee crossed the Potomac to relieve Virginia by threatening Washington. He captured Frederick and Hagerstown. Jackson moved against Harper's Ferry, which quickly surrendered (Sept. 15). Lee took position at South Mountain, but could not hold it against McClellan's forces. Lee then retreated to Sharpsburg, where,

being joined by Jackson, he was attacked by McClellan. The engagement, one of the severest of the war, was fought (Sept. 16, 17) on Antietam Creek, with no decisive results.

557. Battle of Fredericksburg.—Gen. McClellan was superseded by Gen. Burnside (Nov. 7). The government was urgent for a renewal of hostilities. Gen. Burnside moved on Fredericksburg (Dec. 13), and attacked it. A heavy cannonade was kept up all day, with little effect. Then a gallant charge was made. This was repeated five times by the brave Union forces, only to be repulsed with terrible loss.¹ Burnside fell back, and was relieved by Gen. Joseph Hooker, familiarly called by his soldiers "Fighting Jo Hooker." This ended the campaign in the East, which throughout the year had been a series of Southern successes.

558. Forts Henry and Donelson.—These forts were strong Confederate positions, and against them the Union forces in the west were directed. The Union gunboats under Commodore Foote moved up the Tennessee River, and after an hour's fight captured Fort Henry (Feb. 6, 1862). Gen. Grant then moved across to the Cumberland, and, in conjunction with the gunboats, invested Fort Donelson (Feb. 12). The fighting on the first day was desperate, and after three days Gen. Buckner surrendered. Grant now became a conspicuous figure in the western field of operations.



Forts Henry and Donelson.

¹ Gen. Lee met his young son, Robert, begrimed with smoke and powder, and did not recognize him. The young fellow said, "General, are you going to put us in again?"—"Yes," said his father, "but, my boy, who are you?"—"Why, do you not know me, father? I am Robbie."—"God defend you, my son!" answered the general, "you must go in again."

559. Battle of Pittsburg Landing, or Shiloh.—Gen. Grant then moved with his army up the Tennessee River to Pittsburg Landing, or Shiloh, where Gen. Albert Sidney Johnston attacked him (April 6), and drove him in confusion to the shelter of the gunboats. Johnston received a mortal wound at the moment of victory. During the night Gen. Buell arrived with additional troops, and united with Grant. Gen. Beauregard succeeded to the Confederate command, and on the next day was defeated by the combined forces of Grant and Buell. In this battle the Union loss was fourteen thousand; the Confederate, eleven thousand. The timely appearance of Buell saved the Army of Tennessee from utter rout. The most serious loss to the Confederates was that of their commander.

560. Island No. 10.—On the same day the Confederates suffered another great loss in the surrender of Island No. 10, the

strongest fortification in the Mississippi River. The garrison had withstood a severe bombardment for twenty-four days. Fort Pillow was evacuated; and Memphis, being now unprotected, fell into the hands of the Federal Army. This gave the Union forces control of the whole course of the Mississippi River from Vicksburg north.



Flag officer Farragut.

son and St. Philip on the Mississippi River below New Orleans until he was satisfied that they could not be reduced. He then cut

561. Fall of New Orleans.—Flag officer Farragut¹ bombarded Forts Jack-

¹ David Glascoe Farragut was born near Knoxville, Tenn., in 1801. As a naval officer he had no superior. His daring passage of the Confederate forts

the chain which barred his passage up the river, and sailed with his fleet to New Orleans. There were no soldiers to defend it, as in the days of Gen. Jackson, and it capitulated (April 25). The loss of New Orleans carried with it the loss to the Confederacy of the greater part of Louisiana. This loss was the more severe because it was entirely unexpected.

562. Invasion of Kentucky. — The Confederate Army at Corinth was placed in command of Gen. Bragg, supported by Gens. Polk, Hardee, Breckinridge, Van Dorn, and Price. The Union Army was in command of Gen. Buell, assisted by Gens. Grant, Sherman, Thomas, Sheridan, Pope, and Rosecrans.

At the approach of Buell's army, the Confederate forces withdrew (May 29) to Tupelo, and the Union Army occupied Corinth. Both armies divided their forces. Buell and Thomas entered Tennessee, going to the northeast, while Bragg took a part of the forces and followed. Bragg then conceived the idea of threatening Kentucky to relieve Tennessee. Buell realized the importance of the movement, and opposed it by hastening to Louisville with a large force. On his rapid march through Ken-

on the lower Mississippi was a grand spectacle. The fleet as it pushed upwards was enveloped in the dense smoke of the guns from the forts, from the burning rafts which the Confederates had launched into the river, and from the ironclad ram "Manassas." His other great enterprise was directed against the defenses around Mobile. The Confederate ram "Tennessee" and three other gunboats guarded the bay. From an elevated position in the rigging, Farragut directed the engagement said by him to have been "one of the fiercest naval combats on record." Congress created for him the grade of rear-admiral in December, 1864, and he was made admiral in 1866. He died in 1870.



New Orleans and Vicinity.

tucky, Bragg defeated a large body of Union soldiers at Munfordsville (Sept. 17). Kirby Smith had defeated a Federal detachment at Richmond (Aug. 30), and now united with Bragg; but Buell reached Louisville first, and Bragg fell back into the mountains. At Perryville (Oct. 8) his retreating army was attacked; but after a hard-fought battle the Union forces fell back, and he was permitted to march on without further interference.



The Campaigns in the West.

Excepting a train-load of spoils, Bragg's expedition into Kentucky effected nothing.

563. In Mississippi.—Price at Iuka, and Van Dorn at Holly Springs, now engrossed the attention of Grant, who was intrenched at Corinth. Rosecrans and Price had a severe conflict at Iuka (Sept. 19), but without decisive results. Price then joined Van Dorn, and attacked Rosecrans at Corinth in his intrenchments (Oct. 4). Their courage was as great as was ever displayed on any battlefield, but they were unsuccessful.

564. Battle of Murfreesboro, or Stone River.—Two battles were fought at this place between Rosecrans, who had succeeded Buell, and Bragg. On Dec. 31 the right wing of the Union Army was shattered, and the whole army almost destroyed. During the night, however, Rosecrans rallied his men, and was ready on New Year's Day to begin again; but no fight occurred that day. On Jan. 2, however, Bragg made an heroic charge, which was met with dogged resistance. Bragg withdrew in good order. Gen. Breckinridge and Gen. Sheridan were especially distinguished.

CHAPTER LI.

LINCOLN'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION, *Continued.*

Leading Events of 1863 in the East.

Emancipation Proclamation.
Chancellorsville.

The Draft.
Battle of Gettysburg.

565. Emancipation Proclamation.— President Lincoln issued a proclamation (Sept. 22, 1862) as follows: "On the first day of January, 1863, all persons held as slaves within any State or part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be thenceforward and forever free."

On the first day of January, 1863, the President again proclaimed the following States to be in rebellion, and that all slaves in these States were free: Arkansas, Louisiana (except thirteen parishes), Texas, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia (except fifty-eight counties).

In Maryland, in fifty-eight counties of Virginia, Kentucky, Missouri, Tennessee,¹ and thirteen parishes of Louisiana, slavery was not interfered with. To have given freedom to the negroes of these States would have arrayed many Union men against the Northern policy.

The proclamation of the President was based upon "military necessity," and by it more than four million slaves, valued at more than three billion dollars, were to be set at liberty.²

¹ Tennessee called a convention of the people, and by her own act liberated her slaves before the question of a general amendment to the Constitution had been discussed.

² To recover from a loss so immense required an energy unknown in the history of any people. The question was, "Will the South ever re-

566. The Federal Plan of Campaign was to take Richmond, and to open the Mississippi River. The first object was to be achieved by Gen. Hooker with the Army of the Potomac, while the second was to be performed by Gen. Grant with the Army of the Cumberland. Gen. Hooker reported an army of a hundred and thirty-two thousand men before Fredericksburg, which he said was "the finest army on the planet." Lee could oppose to this well-disciplined army not more than sixty thousand men.

567. Chancellorsville (April 29, 30, May 1, 2).—Gen. Hooker moved against Lee with his splendid army, only to be checked and thwarted at every point by the Confederate chief. Hooker's plans were well conceived, and all of his operations faultlessly arranged. He failed to accomplish his ends on account of the transcendent skill of his antagonist. The genius of Lee in repelling this advance of Hooker's grand army places him among the first class of the world's great commanders. But the Confederates sustained a loss during this four-days' fight that filled the South with sorrow. Stonewall Jackson was slain. In the midst of a masterly flank movement, wherein he had marched with a large part of his army from his extreme right across the front of the whole Union Army, and crushed the right wing of Hooker's army, he was slain by a shot from his own men. No victory could compensate for such a loss. Gen. Lee said, "It would have been better for the South that I should have fallen."

568. The Draft and the New York Riot.—Following the defeat there was a call for more recruits to the Union Army. Difficulties were experienced in many Northern States in securing them. Volunteers were scarce, and the ranks had to be filled by a draft. By this process the men to be furnished by each

retrieve her loss?" Twenty-five years of industry and self-denial have answered the question affirmatively. This loss, and other losses almost as great, have been retrieved by the unaided industry and dogged perseverance of this people.

State were selected by lot, and the unfortunate ones forced to enter the ranks. In New York City the draft was resisted. For three days a riot prevailed. A colored asylum and armory were burned. Negroes were assaulted and killed.

569. Invasion of Pennsylvania.—Hooker was succeeded by Gen. Meade. Lee turned north through the valley of Virginia, captured Winchester, and crossed the Potomac. To the tune "Dixie" he pursued his course into Pennsylvania, where, after taking York and Carlisle, he directed his course to the strong grounds at Gettysburg. Meade, with a splendid army, was moving rapidly to the same point.



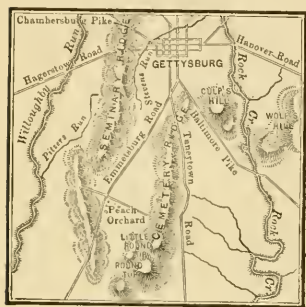
Lee's Invasion of Pennsylvania.

570. Gettysburg.—On July 1 Gen. Reynolds met the advance corps of Lee's army under A. P. Hill and Ewell near Gettysburg, and was forced back. Ewell, with Jackson's men, followed up, and took possession of the town of Gettysburg, capturing five thousand prisoners. Gen. Reynolds being slain, Gen. Hancock succeeded, and took position on the heights called Cemetery Ridge. He was reënforced at this place by the remainder of Meade's army.



Gen. Meade.

On another range of hills parallel to Cemetery Ridge,¹ called Seminary Ridge, the Confederate Army took position on the 2d of July. The position of Meade was in itself strong, but he made it impregnable by intrenchments. This position Gen. Lee resolved to take. Gens. Longstreet, Ewell, and Hill were in command of the attacking lines, and did prodigies of valor. Long-



SCALE OF MILES 0 1/4 1/2 3/4 1
Gettysburg and Vicinity.

street² was so far successful as to win and hold, after terrible fighting, the ground held by his enemy. This was the famous "Peach Orchard." The Union cry, "We have come to stay!" was a glorious one, was gloriously fought for, but could not be maintained. Howard, Steinwehr, and Buford earned the title "heroes." Hood's magnificent Texans, and the Third Arkansas, won undying fame around Little

Round Top. Hays and Hoke, headed by the Louisiana Tigers, faced batteries which fired four shots a minute. Across Rock Creek, Ewell's corps, led by the "Stonewall Brigade," dashed into the breastworks of Wadsworth and Green. "The breastworks blaze, and there is heard the sharp clear rattlings as of thousands of musket-shots." Night came, and the two armies slept. The second day, July 2, had cost each of them ten thousand men.

¹ This ridge, in the shape of a fishhook, had several prominent divisions, — Culp's Hill, Little Round Top, Round Top, and Wolf's Hill. Union soldiers who had been under fire at Malvern Hill, Cedar Mountain, Manassas, Centerville, Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville, said that the firing of the first day at Gettysburg was the most terrific they had ever experienced.

² Longstreet was supported by Gen. Hood. Lee desired to go into battle early on the 2d, saying, "The enemy is here, and if we do not whip him, he will whip us." But he was overruled by his officers, and thus lost the chance to win. Longstreet said, "The general is a little nervous this morning: he wishes me to attack. I do not wish to do so without Pickett. I never like to go into battle with one boot off." It was three o'clock before the battle began.

The third day, July 3, was another of courage such as Americans have rarely had opportunity to display. Pickett's charge down Seminary Ridge and up the opposing ridge was a fitting



Battle of Gettysburg.

close of this the most momentous battle of the war. The steady march of his column was a sight worthy of admiration, and the Union lines did not withhold it. In the face of a blinding tempest of shot and shell, they moved with trained step forward into the very breastworks of the foe. Pickett's Virginians planted their battle flags on the breastworks, and fought with heroic despair. Alone and unsupported, Pickett's men, in the vortex of destruction, were forced to yield,—Kemper wounded, Garnett fallen, and Armistead dead in the very forefront of the charge, far inside the enemy's lines. Night closed on the third day's fight, and ended the battle. Lee did not attack on the next day, and Meade did not follow up what he had gained.¹

¹ The Confederate loss was 31,000; and the Federal, 23,000.

CHAPTER LII.

LINCOLN'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION, *Continued.*

Leading Events of 1863 in the West.

Vicksburg.
Chickamauga.
Missionary Ridge.

Ringgold.
Trans-Mississippi Campaigns.
Confederate Privateers.

571. The Siege of Vicksburg.—Gen. Grant excelled in variety of expedients, dauntlessness of courage, and indomitable endurance. He resolved to take Vicksburg, and, after many discouraging failures, succeeded. He marched into Mississippi, but



Gen. Grant.

was forced to withdraw by the vigorous action of Gen. Van Dorn at Holly Springs. Gen. Sherman was also compelled to withdraw after an unsuccessful assault upon Stephen D. Lee at Chickasaw Bayou. Grant then moved down the Mississippi, landed at Young's Point, and tried to change the bed of the river by cutting across one of its sharp bends.

The failure of this plan led to the opening of other ditches to reach the creeks behind the city. Gunboats from above (April 16), in splendid procession, moved down the river past the city through a shower of shot and shell. This movement of the gunboats protected the movements of Grant, who,

with a large land force, proceeded down the west side of the river to a favorable point (Bruinsburg), where he crossed to the east side and marched northward. This placed him in a critical position between Gen. Joseph E. Johnston at Jackson, and Gen. Pemberton at Vicksburg. By a strange oversight the union of these two armies, and a joint attack upon Grant at Clinton, were not made; and Pemberton was defeated at Big Black River (May 17). This forced him to retire to Vicksburg behind his intrenchments. On May 19 and 22 assaults were made by the Union forces with great spirit, but were both repulsed by the Confederates. Grant then settled down to the slow process of a siege. He had telegraphed Halleck that he could manage Vicksburg,

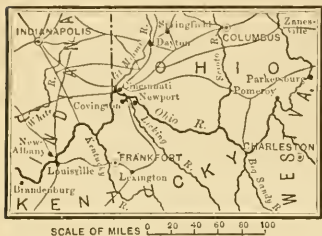


Vicksburg and Vicinity.

and, in addition, an attacking force of thirty thousand men. He was never called upon to manage the attacking force, although an army of nearly thirty thousand was in the State. For a period of forty-seven days the siege went on, until the Confederate forces, being reduced to the very verge of starvation, finally surrendered (July 4).

572. Port Hudson.—While Grant was investing Vicksburg, Gen. Banks, with a large force, attempted to capture Port Hudson. He made two vigorous assaults, but was as vigorously repulsed. It was impossible to carry the place by storm; but, when Vicksburg surrendered, it was useless to continue the one-sided contest. Port Hudson yielded on July 9, and the whole Mississippi River was in the hands of the United States, and the eastern part of the Confederacy cut away from the western.

573. Morgan's Raid.—In July, Gen. Morgan, with about four thousand Confederate cavalry, pushed across the Ohio River into Ohio and Indiana.



Morgan's Raid.

From Brandenburg he passed rapidly to the northeastward, creating consternation on all sides. He passed around Cincinnati, and attempted to cross into Kentucky near Pomeroy. The Federal gunboats at this point interfered, and most of his men were captured.

574. Battle of Chickamauga.—Bragg fell back after the battle of Murfreesboro to Tullahoma, and then into Georgia. Rosecrans reached Chickamauga, where he was attacked by Bragg (Sept. 19). Rosecrans was supported by Gens. Thomas, McCook, and Crittenden; Bragg, by Polk, Hood, Breckinridge, D. H. Hill, and Longstreet. The fight during the whole of the first day was severe, but not decisive. On the next day the battle raged with fury, but Bragg could not drive Thomas from the stand he had taken on the left. A gap in the Union lines made an opportunity for Longstreet to charge, which threw Gen. Davis's division into confusion. Through this



Gen. Bragg.

gap the Confederate Army poured, separating the Federal right and center, and compelling Sheridan, after a gallant fight, to give way. This routed the whole army, excepting Thomas's division, and sent it in great confusion back to Chattanooga. Thomas still held on with determined resolution, and could not be dis-

lodged from his strong position. That night, however, he abandoned it, and entered Chattanooga, having saved the entire Union Army from a rout.

575. Siege of Chatta-

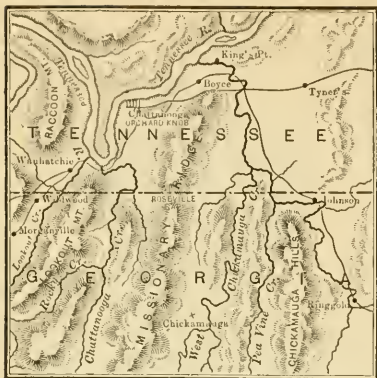
nooga. — Rosecrans was shut up in Chattanooga¹ by the Confederate forces under Bragg. His supplies were cut off, and starvation threatened his army. Bragg's army held the commanding positions on Missionary Ridge and Lookout Mountain. At this juncture Hooker's corps of twenty-three thousand was transferred by rail from the Army



Gen. Thomas.

of the Potomac, and united with the Union Army at Chattanooga. The reduction of Vicksburg enabled Grant to march a large part of his victorious army to the relief of Rosecrans. All these additions were so cleverly made by Grant and Hooker as to escape the observation of the Confederate scouts. Bragg had the superior position, while Grant had a large superiority in men and arms. Bragg still further weakened himself by detaching Longstreet against Fort Saunders at Knoxville. Grant decided to strike Bragg before Longstreet's return. Hooker, with his division, marched up the almost precipitous side of Lookout Mountain (Nov. 24), almost under the present Lookout House on the Point, and without any important opposition occupied the top of the mountain. The battle above the clouds, so fancifully repeated by so many writers, was hardly a skirmish, and the occupancy conferred no advantage other than an imposing appearance.

¹ This little city is almost surrounded by mountains, prominent among them being Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge.



SCALE OF MILES 0 2 4 6 8 10

Chattanooga and Vicinity.

576. Battle of Missionary Ridge.

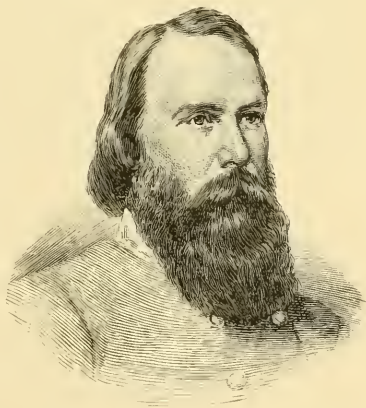
— On Nov. 25 Sherman attacked Bragg at the northern end of Missionary Ridge, near what is now called Sherman Heights; while Hooker, descending from the heights, attacked the southern end from Ross-ville Gap. To resist the severe attack on his wings, Bragg was forced to send forward all his available force.

Nearly all day the Confederates fought stubbornly and well. They held Sherman back until after three o'clock, when the turn came. Grant, from his position on Orchard Knob, saw that the decisive time had come.

*Battle of Missionary Ridge.*

All Bragg's men were in deadly grapple with Hooker and Sherman; and it but remained for him to throw Thomas's division against the weakened center of the Southern Army, and win a splendid victory. Sheridan and Wood moved forward to the foot of the ridge, and took the Confederate rifle-pits. This was as far as they had been ordered to go; but a wild enthusiasm appeared to seize them at this moment, and they resolved to go farther. Without orders, without lines, and defying all control, the men started up the hill. They reached the summit, and planted their colors upon its top. The Confederates retreated, leaving Missionary Ridge in full possession of the Union Army. Sherman's army, by its stubborn, persistent fighting all day, thus calling for the best of Bragg's men to hold them back, made it possible for Thomas to break the center and carry the ridge.

577. Battle of Ringgold.—The next morning Sherman and Hooker started in pursuit of the retreating Confederate Army. They reached Chickamauga Station, to find it in flames. Hooker pushed on to Ringgold, where he came in contact with the Confederate rearguard under Gen. Cleburne. Here a desperate encounter took place (Nov. 26), which earned for Cleburne the glorious title "Stonewall Jackson of the West." Cleburne lost one hundred and thirty men, while Hooker lost four hundred and thirty-two, including some of his best officers. Cleburne retreated, but he was not pursued.



Gen. Longstreet.

578. Siege of Knoxville.

Gen. Longstreet was sent by Bragg to capture Knoxville, then in command of Gen. Burnside. He invested the city, and at-

tacked Fort Saunders (Nov. 29), but was repulsed. The loss of Missionary Ridge caused him to draw off his forces, and to follow Bragg. The Confederate Army retreated to Dalton, and established a fortified camp. Bragg was superseded by Gen. Joseph E. Johnston.

579. Campaign in Arkansas.—The transfer of Van Dorn's command to the Mississippi Department left Arkansas without defense. The Confederates created a new department composed



SCALE OF MILES 0 20 40 60 80 100

Battlefields in Arkansas.

of Louisiana, Arkansas, and Texas, called the Trans-Mississippi Department, and placed Arkansas in command of Gen. Hindman. Hindman, assisted by Gen. Roane, organized an army of Arkansas troops, and checked Curtis in two skirmishes at St. Charles and Cache River (June 17, July 7, 1862).

Since the drawn battle of Elkhorn (Pea Ridge), no battle of importance had occurred on the soil of this State. The Union forces under Gens. Blunt and Herron had gathered at Prairie Grove, where they were attacked by Gen. Hindman (Dec. 7, 1862). The battle was severe but not decisive. Hindman retreated to the South.

The capture of Arkansas Post (January, 1863), the battle of Helena (July 4), and the capture of Little Rock (Sept. 10) and Pine Bluff, placed Arkansas under the control of the Union soldiery save a small region in the southwest.

580. Jenkin's Ferry and Price's Raid.—Gen. Steele moved southward in April, 1864, and encountered the Confed-

erate Army at Mark's Mill (April 25). Pushing on, he again attacked it at Jenkin's Ferry (April 30), only to be repulsed. He then retreated to Little Rock. This virtually ended the war in Arkansas. In September, 1864, Gen. Price started from his camp in southern Arkansas on an invading expedition. He pushed his way into Missouri, meeting opposition at many places, and fighting several battles. The battle of Pilot Knob, Mo., resulted in his defeat. He then entered Kansas, where he was again defeated, and turned southward into Arkansas, where he remained until the close of the war.

581. Texas.—Admiral Farragut, with a part of the Gulf blockading squadron, captured Corpus Christi, Galveston, and Sabine Pass (1862). Gen. Magruder was placed in command of this part of the Trans-Mississippi Department of the Confederates, and by a series of brave actions won considerable renown. He attacked at the same time the land forces in possession of Galveston and the investing squadron. The garrison surrendered: one vessel was captured, another destroyed, and the blockade broken up at that place (Jan. 1, 1863).

582. Louisiana.—Gen. Banks undertook to reduce Louisiana and Texas. His first plan resulted in complete failure. In November he captured Brazos Island, Point Isabel, and Fort Esperanza, on Matagorda Bay. Leaving the Gulf, he went up the Mississippi River, and began his operations by way of Red River.

Banks's Red River Expedition.—Gen. Richard Taylor, son of President Zachary Taylor, was in command of the Confederate forces in Louisiana. Banks concentrated his army of thirty-one thousand at Sabine Cross Roads, where he was attacked (April 8, 1864), and driven back to Pleasant Hill. At this place Taylor was again successful in overthrowing Banks (April 9) and forcing him out of the State.

583. Confederate Privateers.—These vessels did an immense amount of injury to the commerce of the United States.

The "Sumter," in charge of Capt. Raphael Semmes, did great damage in 1861. Semmes sold this vessel while blockaded



Raphael Semmes.

in the port of Gibraltar, and proceeded to England, where he obtained another, the "Alabama," in which (1862 and 1863) he gained a lasting fame. With the "Alabama" he almost destroyed the commerce of the United States on the sea, capturing sixty-five merchant ships, and property worth six million dollars. In June, 1864, the "Kearsarge," commanded by Capt. Winslow, encountered the "Alabama" off the coast of

France at Cherbourg, and, after a severe battle, succeeded in sinking her. The "Kearsarge" was protected amidships by iron chains skillfully concealed by plank, as a safeguard for the machinery. Capt. Semmes and a part of his crew were picked up and carried to England.

Other noted Confederate cruisers which preyed on the commerce of the United States were the "Shenandoah," which inflicted damages almost as heavy as those made by the "Alabama"; the "Florida"; the "Georgia"; the "Tallahassee"; and the "Nashville."

CHAPTER LIII.

LINCOLN'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION, *Concluded.*

Leading Events of 1864.

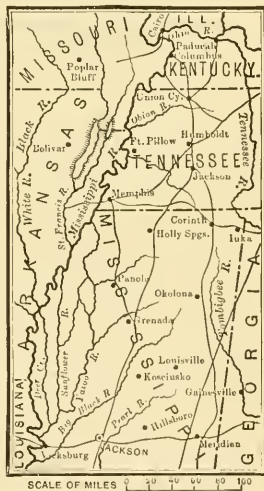
Grant Commander in Chief.
The Fall of Atlanta.
Battle of Nashville.
Grant's Virginia Campaign.

Early and Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley.
Sherman's March through Georgia.
Lincoln's Reëlection.

584. Invasion of Florida.—Early in February (1864) Gen. Seymour landed at Jacksonville with a Union force to conquer Florida. He advanced to Olustee, where he was met by Gens. Colquitt and Finegan, and defeated.

585. Sherman's Expedition to Meridian.—In February, Sherman, with fifty thousand men, started from Vicksburg for the purpose of destroying the railroads of Alabama and Mississippi. He reached Meridian, Miss., on the 14th, having torn up a hundred and fifty miles of railroad track, and burned bridges, locomotives, cars, cotton, and corn.

586. Forrest's Cavalry Expedition.—The Cavalry under Gens. Grierson and Smith had set out from Memphis to join Sherman's army at Meridian, but was met at Okolona, Miss., by Gen. Forrest, and defeated with great loss (Feb. 22). Forrest pushed northward into Tennessee, where, on March 24, he captured Union City. He pushed on to Paducah, and in a daring attack upon Fort Anderson was repulsed, losing three hundred men. Turning back



Scene of Operations in Mississippi and Tennessee.

into Tennessee, he reached Fort Pillow, on the Mississippi River, and carried it by storm (April 12).

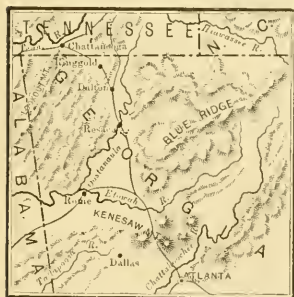
587. Grant made Commander in Chief.—The vigor of Grant in the West had drawn the eyes of the whole North to him as the person worthy of sole command of the Union arms. Lee had outgeneraled every Union leader that had opposed him in the East, and Grant had done the same with every Confederate general in the West, with the possible exception of Sidney Johnston. These two greatest of American generals were now to be pitted against each other. Grant was to command an army of seven hundred thousand men, with the resources of the North behind him; the South mustered less than one half this number of men, backed by a country almost exhausted by the strife of the three preceding years.

588. The Plan of Campaign.—Grant was made lieutenant-general by Act of Congress, and took command at once of the Army of the Potomac (March 2). His trusted lieutenant in the West was Gen. Sherman. To him, on April 4, he wrote, "You I propose to move against Johnston's army to break it up, and to get into the interior of the enemy's country as far as you can, inflicting all the damage you can against their war resources." To his trusted lieutenant in the East, Gen. Meade, he wrote on April 9, "Lee's army will be your objective point. Wherever Lee goes, there you will go also." Gen. Lee had but one plan: "Defend the soil of the South at every point." He kept in front of Grant and Meade until they found it impossible to hammer him out by superior fighting. Then began that policy of Gen. Grant's which added to his fame, and ended the war. It was the policy of flanking. To stretch his immense army to the right or left of Lee, and to push forward despite his losses and the cost, was the inflexible plan of the Union general. With anything less than a princely army, failure would have followed. It cost an immense number of men, but it succeeded; and success was the object he had in view.

589. Sherman's Advance on Atlanta.—The Army of the Cumberland and the Army of Tennessee under Gen. Sherman marched against the Confederate Army at Dalton, Ga., under Gen. Johnston. Beginning at Dalton, Sherman marched to the right, and forced Johnston back to Resaca, where a severe engagement occurred (May 14). Marching to the right again, he forced Johnston back to New Hope Church, near Dallas, where three fights occurred (May 25, 26, 27). Failing in these, Sherman again marched to the right, and Johnston met him at Kennesaw Mountain, where two desperate assaults were made by the Union forces, but without success (June 27). Swinging around to the left, Sherman pushed on, but found Johnston ahead of him again in the fortifications at Atlanta (July 9). Gen. Johnston won the name "American Fabius," by his skill and caution, from Dalton to Atlanta. He had preserved his own army, and had inflicted great loss upon his adversary. His policy was not however, thought to be sufficiently bold by the Richmond authorities. He was superseded by Gen. John B. Hood.



Gen. Sherman.



SCALE OF MILES 0 10 20 30 40 50 60

The Atlanta Campaign.

590. Siege of Atlanta.—The policy of Gen. Hood was to fight. On three different days (July 20, 22, 28) he marched out and assaulted the strong Union lines around the city. At each

assault he was signally repulsed with very great loss. Hood evacuated Atlanta, Sept. 2, having lost about eight thousand men without doing any great damage to the enemy.

591. Battle of Franklin.—Hood marched north to destroy Thomas's army, and to thus force Sherman back into Tennessee. Gen. Schofield, with a large force, took position at Franklin, where he was attacked (Nov. 30) by Hood with impetuous vigor, and defeated.¹

592. Battle of Nashville.—Schofield fell back to Nashville, where Thomas took command. On Dec. 15 he moved out, and attacked Hood's army, only to be repulsed. On the next day he attacked the whole Confederate lines again and again, each time being repulsed with heavy loss. Late in the afternoon a grand charge was made, which broke the Southern line, and forced it to give way. Gen. Hood said, "I beheld for

the first and only time a Confederate army abandon the field in confusion."² Under the cover of Walthall and Forrest, the army retreated to Tupelo. Hood was relieved of the command, and the army ordered to report to Gen. Joseph E. Johnston in North Carolina. This battle really ended the war in the West.



Grant's Virginia Campaign.

593. The Campaign in Virginia.—Grant had under his immediate control during the campaign of 1864 nearly one hundred and sixty thousand men.

¹ Gen. Pat. Cleburne was killed in the enemy's breastworks. Gens. Gist, Adams, Strahl, and Granberry were killed. Six generals were wounded, and Gen. Gordon was captured. The loss of Gen. Cleburne "was irreparable." His conduct at New Hope in the retreat of Gen. Johnston resulted in a brilliant victory, and this was surpassed by his heroic action at Franklin.

² It was in this battle that Miss Mary Bradford, a young lady of Tennes-

Thirty thousand, under Gen. Butler, were sent to take Petersburg, and to move on Richmond from the South: the rest, under Grant, set out for the famous Southern capital. Against this most splendid array Lee could oppose only seventy-eight thousand men.

594. Battle of the Wilderness.—Grant's army entered the oak woods and thickets west of Chancellorsville, called the "Wilderness," where he was attacked by Lee. For three days (May 5-7) the fighting lasted without cessation. As the Federal lines were destroyed, new forces took their places; and the policy of "attrition" was begun. Lee was always in the front, and could not be overrun.

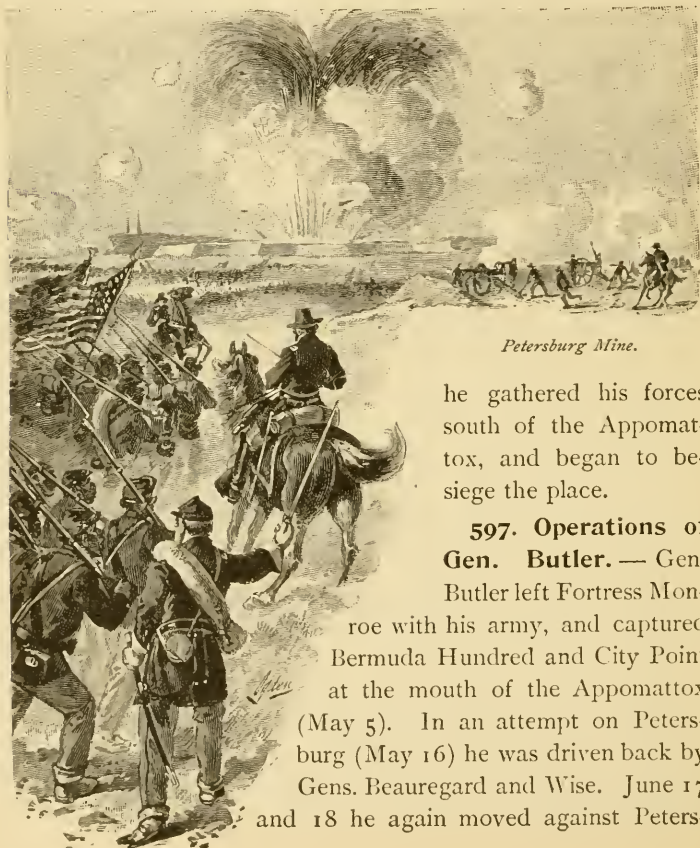
595. Battle of Spottsylvania Court House (May 9, 13). Grant then said that he would go around Lee, and moved off towards Spottsylvania Court House, where, on the 12th, in the morning twilight, Hancock captured most of Johnson's division. Here Gen. Lee put himself at the head of a column to lead it to victory, but was forced back by the men, who cried, "Gen. Lee to the rear! We'll not fight till Uncle Robert goes to the rear!" Lee went to the rear, when the men, with an uncontrollable frenzy, gave vent to the loudest yells, and retook the lost ground.¹ For twenty hours without cessation the men fought like heroes, with only the intrenchments between them. A Massachusetts regiment fired over four hundred musket-shots to each man. Lee lost many men, but Grant's losses were very much greater.

596. Cold Harbor.—Grant, after being reënforced, moved off towards Hanover Junction, only to find Lee in front of him

see, rushed into the retreating army, regardless of the storm of bullets, and implored the men to rally and face the enemy; but in vain, the odds were too great.

¹ Gen. Gordon led this charge. "In the Ordnance Museum at Washington is the stump of a large tree that had been cut down by bullets, so close and deadly was the musketry fire in the captured and recaptured salient" (*Memoir of Mrs. Davis*). Major Dunlop, of McGowan's South Carolina Brigade, measured this stump the next morning, and found it to be eighteen inches in diameter. The fight on the angle was possibly the greatest fight of this or any other war.

again. Without giving battle, he moved to the east, and confronted him at Atlee's Station. Moving on, he found Lee again in front of him at Cold Harbor, and resolved to give battle. He assaulted the Confederates (June 1-12) all along the line with gigantic blows, only to be repulsed with unparalleled slaughter. The Union loss in killed alone was nearly two thousand men. Grant was now satisfied that he could not enter Richmond from the north. Taking McClellan's plan, he moved to the James, and, crossing, attempted to surprise Petersburg. Failing in this,



Petersburg Mine.

he gathered his forces south of the Appomattox, and began to besiege the place.

597. Operations of Gen. Butler. —

Butler left Fortress Monroe with his army, and captured Bermuda Hundred and City Point at the mouth of the Appomattox (May 5). In an attempt on Petersburg (May 16) he was driven back by Gens. Beauregard and Wise. June 17 and 18 he again moved against Peters-

burg, and made repeated assaults, but could not carry the place. Then began the slow processes of a siege that has become famous. Mining and countermining was the order of the day; and successes and reverses, brilliant strokes and ugly failures, followed in rapid succession the work of either side. Early in May, at Spottsylvania, Grant had said, "We'll fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." It took all summer, all fall, and all winter.

598. The Petersburg Mine. — Finding it impossible to carry Petersburg by storm, an attempt was made to undermine it, and tear it up by explosions. A large tunnel was dug, leading to a point immediately under one of the strongest Confederate works. Four tons of gunpowder were placed in the tunnel, and exploded (July 30). The "conical mountain rises in the air" bearing timber, stone, bodies of men, and heavy guns. The Federal forces charge upon the crater, only to receive the shot of the terrible guns from Cemetery Ridge. The total Union loss was nearly five hundred men. "It was not a valley of the shadow of death. It was a valley of death itself." The mine was a failure.

599. Sigel's Campaign in the Shenandoah. — Grant sent Sigel with eight thousand men to march down the Shenandoah valley. He was met at New Market by Gen. Breckinridge (May 15), and routed. His flying troops were transferred to Hunter, who faced about, and gained a victory at Piedmont. Finding himself in peril, he crossed the mountains into West Virginia, leaving the Shenandoah open to the Confederates.

600. Early's March. — Lee at once sent Early over the Blue Ridge to sweep the valley, enter Maryland, and threaten Washington. With twelve thousand men he dashed down the valley, took Martinsburg, Leesburg, and Winchester, entered Maryland, and captured Hagerstown. He met Gen. Wallace (July 9) at the Monocacy, and defeated him with great loss. Sweeping on, he passed within gunshot of Washington and Baltimore, wheeled back, and entered Virginia with an immense load of supplies. After the battle of Monocacy, Early had everything his own way.

Town after town was visited by the ragged soldiers of McClelland, Johnston, and Breckinridge, and large levies of clothing and money laid upon their citizens. The great destruction of property in the valley of Virginia by Gen. Hunter¹ led Early to an act of retaliation. This was the burning of the town of Chambersburg, Penn., July 29.

601. Sheridan in the Valley. — Gen. Grant sent Gen. Sheridan with forty-two thousand men to chastise the little army of Early, and to devastate the Shenandoah so that “a crow would



Gen. Sheridan.

have to carry its own rations” in passing over it. The work of ruin was well done. The torch and the ax took the place of guns and swords. Early, with a force one fourth the size of his opponent’s, entered the valley once more. He marched into the powerful Union camp, routed the forces that turned against him, captured the artillery, and sent his enemy flying before him (Oct. 18). Sheridan met his flying hosts,

re-formed them, and led them back to rout the little band that had pushed them so hard in the morning. No more brilliant events have ever been recorded than these master strokes of Early and Sheridan on this autumn day.

602. Sherman’s March through the South. — With the sixty thousand veterans who had been fighting Johnston and Hood, Gen. Sherman started from Atlanta (Nov. 14) for Savannah. He burned Atlanta before starting, and met little opposi-

¹ He burned Gov. Letcher’s residence and many private houses.

tion until he reached Savannah. He captured this city, and gave it as a Christmas gift to President Lincoln. From Atlanta to Savannah, and from Savannah to Columbia, he laid waste everything. In his report of the damage done in Georgia, Sherman placed it at one hundred million dollars, of which twenty million dollars "inured to our advantage." He entered Columbia on Feb. 17, 1865.

603. The Elections.—In November of 1864 Abraham Lincoln was reëlected President of the United States, with Andrew Johnson of Tennessee as Vice-President. The Democratic party nominated Gen. George B. McClellan of New Jersey, and George H. Pendleton of Ohio, on a peace platform, but carried only three States,—New Jersey, Delaware, and Kentucky. The Southern States did not vote; but, despite this, the popular vote stood 2,213,665 for Lincoln, against 1,802,237 for McClellan. McClellan received a greater vote than Douglas did in 1860, with Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas not voting. Besides this, large bodies of voters in Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri were disfranchised by the "ironclad oaths" that had been framed as tests of loyalty.

CHAPTER LIV.

LINCOLN'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION, 1865.

Leading Events.

Fall of Fort Fisher.
Evacuation of Richmond.
Surrender of Lee's Army.
Sherman-Johnston Armistice.

Assassination of Abraham Lincoln.
Surrender of Johnston's Army.
Arrest of Jefferson Davis.
The Forces and Losses of the War.

604. Fall of Fort Fisher.—This stronghold of the Confederates had proudly resisted all opposition for four years. From the sea an attack was made by one of the grandest fleets that ever floated on the waters of any ocean. This was supported by a land force under Gen. Terry proud of its record as soldiers. Before these Fort Fisher fell (Jan. 15).

605. Fall of Fort Sumter.—Here the first engagement of the war occurred, and here for four years the Confederates had held full sway. When Sherman reached Columbia, Gen. Hardee evacuated the place, and joined Gen. Johnston in North Carolina. Then Fort Sumter passed quietly into Federal hands.

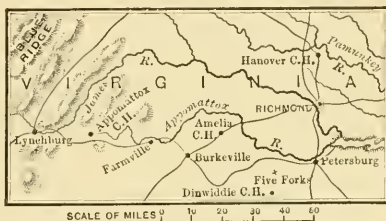
606. Hampton Roads Conference.—Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President of the Confederate States, J. A. Campbell, and R. M. T. Hunter, at the suggestion of Hon. Frank Blair of Maryland, were sent by the Confederate States authorities to Fortress Monroe to an informal consultation (February) with President Lincoln and William H. Seward (secretary of state) over the state of the country, and the means by which peace might be effected. The distinguished parties had a conversation of four hours' duration, but nothing resulted from the conference.

607. The Evacuation of Richmond.—Sheridan, after finishing his waste of the beautiful Shenandoah, joined Grant, and

swelled the Union ranks to two hundred thousand men, nearly five times the number of the Confederate Army. The battle of Five Forks¹ (April 1) made it impossible to hold longer the defenses that for nearly a year had bid defiance to the best-drilled and the best-equipped army that America ever saw. Thin were the ranks of the Confederates as they marched out of Petersburg, and out of Richmond (April 2), to the West.

608. The Surrender of Gen. Lee.²

The victorious legions of the North hastened to surround the retreating foe. Lee reached Appomattox Court House on April 9, 1865, and found his forward march blocked by the conquering

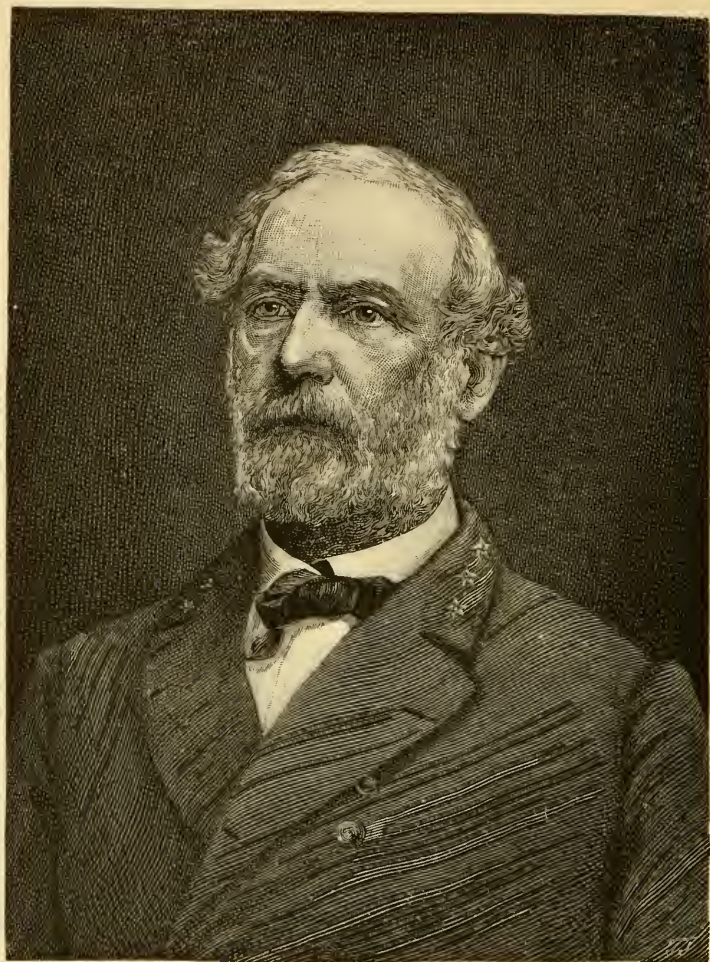


Battlefields in Vicinity of Richmond.

¹ Gen. A. P. Hill was killed while attempting to reach his troops at this place. He was one of Lee's most trusted generals.

² Robert Edward Lee, the most distinguished Confederate general, was born in Virginia in 1806, and died in 1870. He was the son of Gen. Henry Lee, the famous "Light Horse Harry." He was graduated at West Point in 1829 at the head of his class. In the Mexican war he served as chief engineer to Gen. Scott, by whom he was repeatedly commended, and who attributed the capture of Vera Cruz to his able service. These services brought promotion, and after the war he became superintendent of West Point. At the breaking-out of the war he went with his State, although not a believer in secession. He became major-general in the Virginia Army, then brigadier-general in the Confederate Army, then commander in chief of all the Confederate armies. At the close of the war he became president of Washington College, now Washington and Lee, — a position which he filled with great fidelity during the remainder of his life. The news of his death created a profound sensation everywhere, and great honors were paid to his memory. "But what failure could obscure that moral perfection which places him as easily by the side of the best men that ever lived as his heroic actions make him the peer of the greatest? There are men whose influence on mankind neither worldly success nor worldly failure can affect.

"The greatest gift the hero leaves his race
Is to have been a hero."

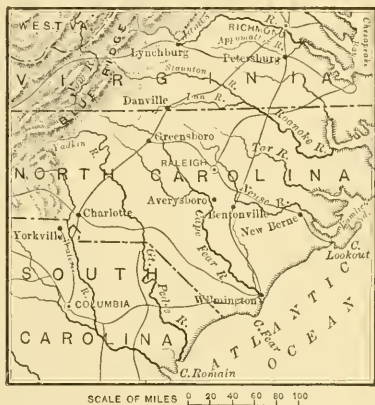


R. E. L.

army. Lee surrendered his army;¹ and Gen. Grant, with a magnanimity worthy of a conqueror, immediately paroled it. The parole recognized them as Confederate soldiers, and guaranteed that so long as they obeyed the laws of the United States and the laws of their respective States they should not be molested. These veterans of the Army of Northern Virginia, the heroes of a hundred battles, marched back to their homes, to build again their ruined fortunes, their conquered States, and their affection for the United States. They fought for what they thought was right, and were beaten. As Americans they accepted the fortunes of war, and determined to hammer out of changed and forced conditions a glory greater than they had before.

609. The Sherman-Johnston Armistice.—

Sherman had marched north from Columbia to join Grant. The only opposition he had was given by the totally inadequate forces of Gen. Joseph E. Johnston in two bloody battles at Averysboro, N. C. (March 16), and Bentonville (March 19). Mr. Davis and his cabinet left Richmond, and proceeded to Danville. After Lee's surrender they



Sherman's Campaign in North Carolina.

¹ The terms were arranged at the residence of Mr. McLean, who, at the battle of Manassas, lived at McLean's Ford over Bull Run, and had moved to Appomattox to be more secure. The armies hunted him up, so that he might see the end. Gens. Grant and Lee being seated, and the conversation having opened easily, Gen. Lee said, "I suppose, Gen. Grant, that the object of our present meeting is fully understood. I asked to see you to know upon what terms you would receive the surrender of my army." Gen. Grant then replied, stating the terms upon which he would receive surrender, and Gen. Lee said that he would accept them.

went to Greensboro, N. C. Here Mr. Davis and Gens. Johnston and Beauregard agreed that Johnston should make such terms with Sherman as would end the war. An armistice was signed conditionally by Gens. Sherman and Johnston (April 18); but an unforeseen calamity occurred in the meantime, which changed the whole course of affairs, and plunged the South into woes that lasted for years.

610. Assassination of President Lincoln.—Just as the Southerners were beginning to lose the edge of that agony which follows defeat, they, in common with the whole country, were horrified to hear that President Lincoln had been wickedly assassinated (April 14) at Ford's Theater in Washington City. This death was a calamity to the whole American people, but a most direful one to the people of the South. Despite the blinding throes of passion, the Southern people had gained glimpses of the heart of Lincoln, and had learned to trust him; but, had they hated him, they would have scorned to gain their ends by an assassin's hand. They fought on open fields, both giving and taking the deadliest blows, and despised with all their soul the hand that killed the President. From that day onward, with their other laments has gone a lament for Lincoln. They were glad that the assassin was not a Southern man. Many, however, believed that the South had connived at his death, and a policy of retribution was demanded by them. The whole course of Federal conduct was changed, and the era of good feeling postponed for years.

611. Surrender of all the Armies.—Andrew Johnson of Tennessee was sworn in as President, and he disapproved of the Sherman-Johnston Armistice. Gen. Johnston then (April 26) surrendered upon the same terms as had been agreed upon between Lee and Grant. The last surrender was that of E. Kirby Smith, in Texas, on the 26th of May.

612. Arrests.—President Johnson offered a reward of one hundred thousand dollars for the arrest of Mr. Davis, charging

him with complicity in the assassination of Mr. Lincoln. Orders were also issued for the arrest of Mr. Stephens, all the Confederate war governors, and many prominent Confederate officers. Mr. Davis, Mr. Reagan, and Gov. Lubbock of Texas, were arrested on May 11. Mr. Davis was taken to Fortress Monroe, and confined. When orders for the arrest of Gen. Lee were issued, Gen. Grant repaired to Washington, and protested. He said, that, if his parole given to Lee and his officers and men were violated, he would resign his commission in the army. The administration rescinded its order, and things took on a brighter hue throughout the country. Thus ended the war.

613. The Great Numbers.—The Confederates surrendered about 150,000 men. The Union forces mustered out of service were about 1,050,000. The Federal records show that the enlistments in the Union Army during the entire war were over 2,800,000; in this number reënlistments being counted twice, or even more often. The Confederate enlistments, all told, never reached 700,000.¹ The loss on both sides, by death from all causes, reached the enormous aggregate of fully 450,000 men. The full cost to both sides, including the loss of property, was nearly \$8,000,000,000, or nearly the assessed value of all the property in the United States in 1861. These are the great figures, the great facts, and the great story, of the greatest war known to man.

614. Results of the War.—This war settled forever the question of peaceable secession. The right of a State to dissolve the Union went down with the surrender of Lee's army, never to be asserted again. The South accepted this conclusion in good faith, and transferred its loyalty to the old flag. Another result was the abolition of slavery, the bane of the American Republic, and the only clog to the full development of the "Old South."

¹ North Carolina claims to have furnished fully one fifth of the whole Confederate Army.

CHAPTER LV.

JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION (1865-69).

Leading Events.

Thirteenth Amendment (1865).
Reconstruction.
Fourteenth Amendment (1868).
New State Constitutions.

The Impeachment.
The Atlantic Cable (1866).
Purchase of Alaska (1867).
Release of Jefferson Davis (1867).

615. The President's Policy.—Mr. Johnson¹ and Mr. Seward held, that, before the Southern States could be recognized as States in the Union, it would be necessary for each one to abolish slavery, and to ratify the Thirteenth Amendment. Accordingly Virginia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas (1) rescinded their ordinances of secession; (2) renewed their obligations to the Union; and (3) adopted the Thirteenth Amendment, which abolished slavery forever in the United States (Dec. 18, 1865), and elected representatives and senators to the Federal Congress.



Andrew Johnson.

¹ Andrew Johnson, the seventeenth President, was born in North Carolina in 1808, and died in 1875. He learned the trade of a tailor, and followed it for many years in Tennessee. He never attended any school, it is said, but educated himself. He was sent to Congress in 1843, where he remained ten years. He was elected governor of Tennessee for two terms, and was then sent to the United States Senate. He was a Union man of strong proclivities, and after the war was over he used his position to bring an era of peace throughout the country. Although bitterly opposed by his party, he persevered with unflagging resolution, and accomplished his end.

616. New States.—West Virginia was admitted into the Union in 1863; Nevada, in 1864; and Nebraska, in 1867.

617. Reconstruction.—A new system of principles was now proclaimed by the ruling party in Congress. President Lincoln had emphasized the point that his war policy was to simply maintain the Union under the Constitution, and that when the Southern States laid down their arms they would be recognized at once as members of the common Union. The Republican party in Congress now claimed, that, before these States should assume their old relations, they should be reconstructed. The men elected by the South under the President's policy were denied admittance to Congress, and the State governments established by them were set aside. Local self-government was rudely pushed aside to make way for the "Reconstruction Acts" of the dominant party. The basis of these acts was that the Southern States had lost their positions as States, and were nothing more than conquered provinces.

618. The Fourteenth Amendment.—The first step in the line of reconstruction was the passage of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. This gave to the negro certain civil rights, decreased the congressional representation of the Southern States, made the public debt unquestionable, prohibited the payment by any State of any part of the Confederate debt, and made certain persons ineligible to official position. The Southern States were not permitted to vote upon this change in the fundamental law. The Northern States barely gave it the required three-fourths vote, and it was declared ratified by Congress, July 21, 1868. Then followed a series¹ of congressional acts

¹ Congress passed the following laws in rapid succession: (1) the Civil Rights Bill; (2) the Freedmen's Bureau Bill; (3) Bill to enfranchise the Negroes of the District of Columbia; (4) Military Government Bill for the Southern States; (5) Civil Tenure of Office Bill; (6) Bills to admit the Reconstructed States of Arkansas, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Louisiana, Alabama, and Florida; (7) Bill to exclude the Electoral Votes of the States not reconstructed. All of these bills were vetoed by the President, and passed over the veto.

and vetoes by the President which estranged the legislative from the executive department. The President, with a great number of his party, held that the policy of Congress was too severe, and that a milder policy should be adopted. The South manfully argued for its constitutional rights, but could not be heard until the passions of war had in part subsided.

619. New State Constitutions. — The war States were divided up into military districts, and treated as conquered provinces. Civil law gave place to military rule. The Southern States were then required to adopt new governments in accord with the demands of the extreme men of the Republican party. (1) A new constitution was required, which recognized the results of the war, and made loyalty its chief corner stone. (2) In adopting these constitutions, only loyal men, and such as were willing to take certain oaths, were permitted to vote. In attempting to sift the loyal from the disloyal, and those who were willing to swear from those who were not, many corrupt practices sprang into life, which produced exasperation and trouble. Suffrage was taken away from many by registration, expunging, and other practices; but, the consent of the majority voting having been thus obtained, the new governments went into effect. They were never loved by the people; and in a few years, as time healed the wounds of war, they were no longer upheld by the Federal Government, and perished from the earth.

620. Test Oaths. — Congress passed a law that lawyers should not practice in courts unless they took an oath that they had not aided or abetted the Confederacy. This practically excluded every lawyer* in the South from the practice of law, as nearly all of them had supported the Confederate cause. Augustus H. Garland of Arkansas, afterwards attorney-general of the United States, contested this law in every court to the Supreme Court of the United States, where it was solemnly declared to be unconstitutional. The laws passed by Congress, confiscating the property of Confederates, were likewise contested, and declared

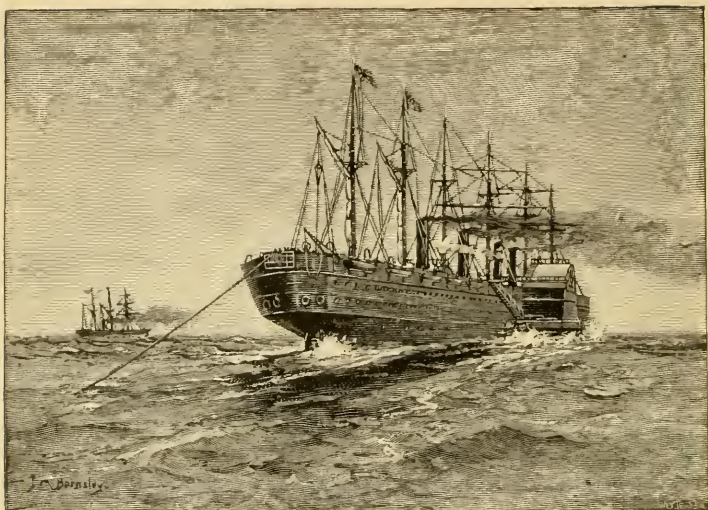
unconstitutional. Thus the better sentiment of the Republican party, as expressed by President Johnson and the United States Supreme Court, was adverse to the extreme measures of Congress. This encouraged the good people of all parties to wait.

621. The Impeachment.—The liberal policy of the President caused Congress to set on foot, for the first time in the history of the country, the constitutional machinery for removing a President from office. The Senate of the United States, presided over by Salmon P. Chase, chief justice, resolved itself into a court of impeachment. The trial resulted in an acquittal. Thus step by step the country went back to conservative ground.

622. Fenian Excitement.—The “Irish Patriots” in America gathered in large numbers at several places near the Canadian boundary, preparatory to an invasion of that country. The movement assumed immense proportions, and Gen. Meade was sent to the border to preserve the neutrality laws. Some trifling skirmishes followed, but the proclamation of the President (June 6, 1866) promptly put an end to warlike demonstrations.

623. Gens. Grant and Sherman.—For his distinguished services, Gen. Grant was nominated (July 25, 1866) to the rank of general,—the highest military position ever held by an American. In August following, Gen. Sherman was elevated to the rank of lieutenant-general.

624. The Atlantic Cable (July 28, 1866).—This great enterprise, suggested by Cyrus W. Field of New York, and successfully operated for a short time in 1858, was put on a sounder business basis in 1866 by the same diligent worker. The steamship “Great Eastern” laid the cable from Valentia Bay, Ireland, to Heart’s Content, Newfoundland. By the 12th of August the communication between New York and London was complete, and has never been interrupted since. Whatever is known at the telegraph centers in Great Britain, and printed in the newspapers of that country, is on the same day known throughout the United States.



Laying the Atlantic Cable.

625. Purchase of Alaska.— By a treaty with Russia, the territory of Alaska, containing 580,000 square miles, was added to the United States (March 30, 1867). The price paid was \$7,200,000. This great region is particularly valuable for its fisheries and immense forests of white pine and yellow cedar.

626. Release of Jefferson Davis.— Mr. Davis had been in close confinement at Fortress Monroe since the day of his arrest. Now he was taken before the United States Court at Richmond. He was admitted (May 13) to bail in a bond of \$100,000, with Horace Greeley, and several prominent business men of the country, as bondsmen; and he became a free man. This ended the case.

627. The Elections.— The Republicans nominated Gen. Ulysses S. Grant of Illinois for President, and Schuyler Colfax of Indiana for Vice-President. The Democratic party nominated Horatio Seymour of New York, and Frank P. Blair of Missouri. Grant received 214 electoral votes, and Seymour 80. The negroes voted for the first time for President.

Synopsis of the Leading Battles and Affairs of the War.

1861.

War in Virginia.
Arlington Heights.
Big Bethel.
McClellan's Campaign.
Rosecrans' Campaign.
Manassas.
Ball's Bluff.

In Missouri.
Lyon and Price.
Oak Hills.
Carthage.

Privateers.
The Blockade.
Mason and Slidell.

1862.

War in the West.
Pea Ridge.
Shiloh.
Island No. 10.
Bragg's Expedition.
Perryville.
Munfordville.
Richmond.
Iuka and Corinth.
Murfreesboro.

Coast.
Forts Jackson and Fisher.
Evacuation of New Orleans.
"Virginia" and "Monitor."

In the East.
Siege of Yorktown.
Williamsburg.
Seven Pines.
Fair Oaks.
Stonewall Jackson's Raid.
Stuart's Ride.
Seven-Days' Battle.
Manassas.
Invasion of Maryland.
South Mountain.
Harper's Ferry.
Antietam.
Fredericksburg.

1863.

Emancipation.
Vicksburg.
Port Hudson.
Morgan's Raid.
Chickamauga.
Chattanooga.
Missionary Ridge.
Ringgold's Gap.
Prairie Grove.
Banks's Red River Expedition.
The "Alabama."

War in the East.
Chancellorsville.
Invasion of Maryland.
Gettysburg.

1864.

Invasion of Florida.
Forrest's Expedition.
Johnston's Campaign around Atlanta.
Siege of Atlanta.
Battles of Franklin and Nashville.
Sherman's March.

War in Virginia.
Battle of the Wilderness.
Battle of Spottsylvania Court
House.
Battle of Cold Harbor.
Operations of Gen. Butler.
Early's Expedition.
Sigel's Campaign.
Sheridan in the Valley.

Expedition against Mobile.

1865.

Fall of Fort Fisher.
Evacuation of Richmond.
Surrender of Lee.
Sherman in North Carolina.
Bentonville.
Averysboro.
Surrender of Johnston.
Assassination of Lincoln.
The end of the war.
Its cost and results.

Leading Generals and Admirals of the War.

[For Biographical Study.]

Union.

Grant.	Burnside.	Sumner.
Sherman.	Meade.	Sedgwick.
Sheridan.	Hancock.	Reno.
Hooker.	Garfield.	Birney.
Scott.	Logan.	Reynolds.
McClellan.	Slocum.	Stoneman.
McDowell.	Robert McCook.	Wilson.
Halleck.	Howard.	Kilpatrick.
Buell.	McClermand.	Custer.
Thomas.	Scofield.	Farragut.
Lyon.	Lew Wallace.	Porter.
Butler.	McPherson.	Anderson.
Rosecrans.	Kearny.	Fremont.

Confederate.

Robert E. Lee.	Hood.	Forrest.
Jackson.	Polk.	Breckinridge.
A. S. Johnston.	Price.	Stewart.
J. E. Johnston.	Kirby Smith.	Cheatham.
Cooper.	Morgan.	Hindman.
Longstreet.	Hardee.	G. W. Smith.
Bragg.	Hampton.	Finegan.
Ewell.	Pemberton.	S. D. Lee.
Stuart.	Magruder.	Van Dorn.
Cleburne.	McCullough.	Dick Taylor.
A. P. Hill.	Pickett.	Semmes.
D. H. Hill.	Early.	Beauregard.

Define the following Terms.

West Pointer.	Mortar.	Foraging.
Blue and gray.	Grape and canister.	Drafting.
Contraband of war.	Base of operations.	Flanking.
Ironclad.	Line of defense.	Rifle-pits.
Musket.	Interior lines.	Brigade.
Springfield rifle.	Exterior lines.	Division.

PART VIII.—THE RECONSTRUCTED UNION.

CHAPTER LVI.

GRANT'S¹ FIRST ADMINISTRATION (1869-73).

Leading Events.

Pacific Railroad (1869).

Black Friday (1869).

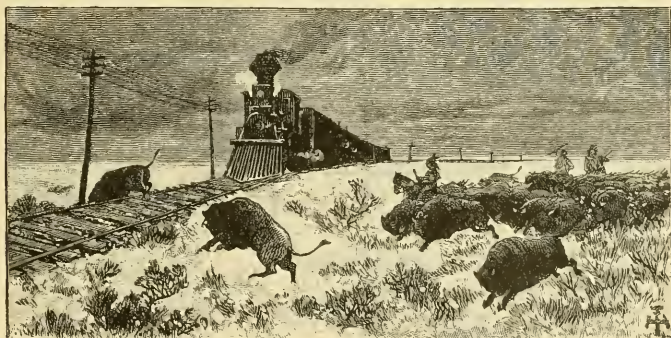
Fifteenth Amendment (1870).

Alabama Claims (1871).

Chicago Fire (1871).

The Northwest Boundary (1872).

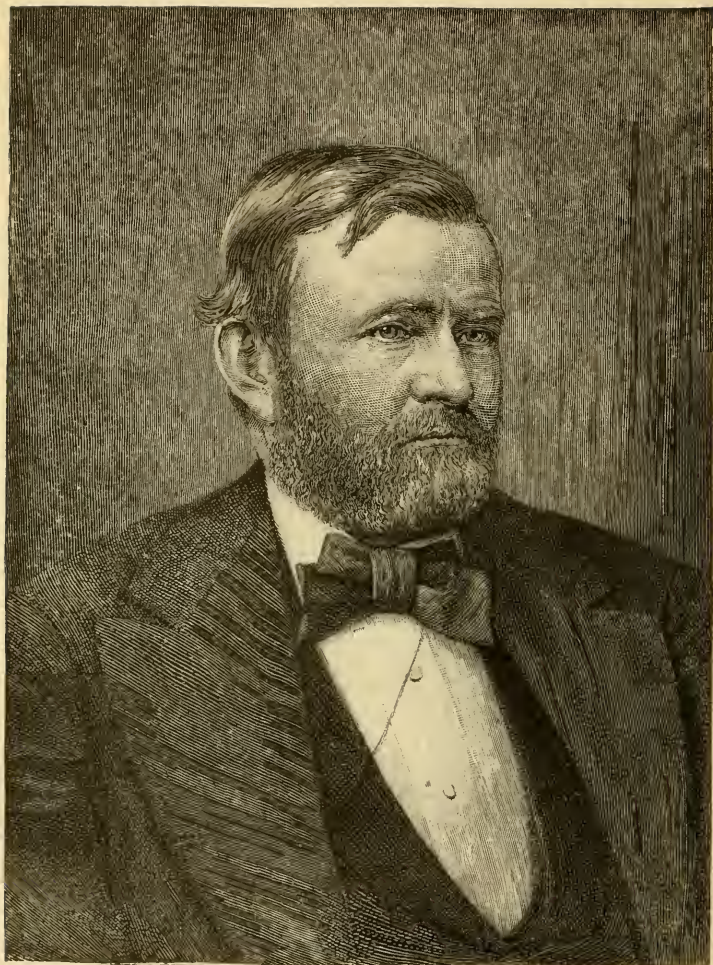
628. The Pacific Railroad.—Peace spread her wings over the whole country except in the States distracted by reconstruction. In May, 1869, the Pacific Railroad, from Omaha to the Pacific



Pacific Railroad.

coast, was finished, and the last spike driven at Ogden, Utah. Since 1869 several roads have been finished from the valley of the Mississippi to the Pacific. These have been joined by lines passing north and south, through all the Western States and

¹ Ulysses S. Grant, the eighteenth President and the most distinguished of the Union generals, was born in Ohio in 1822, and died in 1885. He was



P. J. Grant

Territories ; and the West is rapidly becoming the center of wealth, enterprise, education, and power. The "Iron Horse" has been one of its greatest developers. Our ancestors first planted a church, then a school: the West demands a railroad at the very start, and gives its private and public wealth to obtain it, knowing that an abundance of churches and schoolhouses will follow. On each side of the new railroad were large grants of land which Congress had given the company. These were called "railroad land grants" or "railroad subsidies."

629. Black Friday (Sept. 24, 1869).—A panic in the gold market was effected by Jay Gould, James Fisk, and others, which created great excitement throughout the world. These men attempted to buy up all the gold in circulation, and force its price up. They had nearly succeeded, when Secretary Boutwell ordered a sale of four millions of gold from the sub-treasury. The price went down twenty per cent in twenty minutes. The gold brokers were stranded, but not before they had injured the commercial interests of the country.

630. The Fifteenth Amendment, giving the negro the right to vote, had been proposed during the last year of Johnson's administration. It was declared duly ratified March 30, 1870.

631. The Reconstructed States.—Four elements existed in each of the Southern States: (1) the ex-Confederates, (2) the Union men, (3) the negroes, (4) the carpetbaggers. The ex-Confederates and a great number of the Union men were of Southern birth. Many other Union men had moved into the

graduated at West Point in 1843. He served with great distinction in the Mexican War, and then, returning to Illinois, he followed the peaceful pursuit of a dealer in leather till the breaking out of the Civil War. He was made a brigadier in 1861, major-general in 1862, lieutenant-general in 1864, and general in 1866. The two latter positions were revived by Congress as a special reward for his eminent services. He was secretary of war in 1867. After his death the soldiers of both armies, the Unionists and ex-Confederates, joined in the last sad honors,—a beautiful blending of the blue and the gray.

South to make it their home, honestly trying to build it up. The carpetbaggers were men who entered the South for political motives. These men labored to keep alive the old sectional feelings, and, in conjunction with the negroes, seized the State governments, and pushed them to bankruptcy and anarchy.¹

In 1870, the last of the Southern States were readmitted to the Union, and Congress once more represented the whole country.

632. The Alabama Claims.—During the war, Confederate privateers were fitted out in English ports to injure American commerce. The most noted of these was the “Alabama.” After the war, the United States demanded of Great Britain payment for the damages done by these vessels, and the treaty of Washington (May 8, 1871) provided that all matters of difference between the countries should be submitted to a board of arbitration. This board met at Geneva, Switzerland, during the summer of 1872, and awarded the United States the sum of \$15,500,000 for the damages so inflicted during the war.

633. The Burning of Chicago.—On the 8th of October, 1871, a great fire broke out in Chicago. It burned nearly all the business portion of the city, destroying everything in an area of twenty-one hundred acres of ground. The loss amounted to about two hundred million dollars, besides about two hundred lives. Seventeen thousand houses were burned down, and about one hundred thousand persons were rendered homeless. This was one of the greatest fires of the world.²

634. The Northwest Boundary.—In 1846 the boundary line between British territory and the United States was fixed in the middle of the channel which separates Vancouver’s Island

¹ The debt of the ten Southern States—Louisiana, Georgia, Tennessee, North and South Carolina, Alabama, Texas, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Florida—at the close of the war was \$60,768,451. After the reconstructionists had been in power six or eight years, the indebtedness of these States reached the enormous sum of \$270,572,779.

² The Boston fire (Nov. 9 and 10, 1872) destroyed property to the amount of eighty million dollars, besides burning up fifteen persons.

from the Continent. It turned out that there were several channels. Great Britain claimed the Straits of Rosario to be the channel intended, while America named the Canal de Haro. The matter was left to Emperor William I. of Germany for arbitration, who decided in favor of the Canal de Haro (1872). This ended all boundary disputes in the United States.

635. The Elections.—The Republican party divided. One wing, called the Liberal-Republican, met at Cincinnati, and nominated Horace Greeley¹ of New York, and B. Gratz Brown of Missouri. The Democratic party met at Baltimore, and made no nominations, but indorsed the Liberal-Republican ticket. The Republicans met at Philadelphia, and nominated Ulysses S. Grant, and Henry Wilson of Massachusetts. Grant was elected by a majority of 221 electoral votes. Mr. Greeley died soon after the election, and his votes were given to other candidates. The votes of Arkansas and Louisiana were not counted.

636. The Returning Boards of Louisiana.—Elections were held in Louisiana, and certificates given to men who had never been elected. The elected men took possession of the State House, but were ejected by United States troops. This created an uproar, and serious trouble was expected. Congress sent a committee, headed by W. A. Wheeler, afterwards Vice-President, to investigate. The committee condemned the fraud, and recommended a reorganization of the Louisiana Legislature, giving the elected Democrats their seats. Congress adopted the report, and the matter was settled. The same thing was done with the report of the committee sent into Arkansas.

¹ Horace Greeley was born in New Hampshire in 1811, and died in 1872. As a printer, he settled in New York with ten dollars in his pocket. In 1833 he and Francis Story started the first penny paper ever published, called the *Morning Post*. In 1841 he founded the daily *Tribune*, which still lives. "Emancipation of labor" was the great theme of Greeley, and he soon became a leading antislavery advocate. At the close of the war he favored "amnesty and oblivion for the past." In the presidential election he received the votes of men who had opposed him all their lives. His vote reached nearly three million.

CHAPTER LVII.

GRANT'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION (1873-77).

Leading Events.

The Modoc War (1872-73).
Peabody and Slater Bequests
(1867-82).
Credit Mobilier (1873).

The Panic of 1873.
The Centennials (1875-76).
The Sioux War (1876).
The Electoral Commission.

637. The Modoc War.—The government attempted to remove the Modoc Indians from the region of Lake Klamath, Oregon, to a new reservation. The Indians retired into the lava beds, where they remained during the winter. Here the troops surrounded them, and a parley was arranged. The Indians and the six white commissioners sat down to discuss the question of peace. While thus engaged, the treacherous Modocs assaulted and killed Gen. Canby and Dr. Thomas (April 11, 1873). The troops then began the work of bombardment and destruction. On June 1 Capt. Jack and his followers surrendered to Gen. Davis. The chiefs, including Capt. Jack, were tried by court-martial, and executed.

638. Peabody Trust Fund.—George Peabody, an American philanthropist, who resided for many years at Baltimore, created a trust fund (1867) of several million dollars to aid the schools of the South. The interest of this fund has been faithfully applied by the trustees to help normal colleges and normal institutes in this section. The Peabody College at Nashville, Tenn., stands as a monument to the generous wisdom of George Peabody, and sends each year into the Southern schools scores of well-trained teachers.¹

¹ He gave \$1,400,000 to found a Peabody Institute in Baltimore; \$1,500,000 to the city of London, to erect lodging houses for the working classes; \$150,000 to Harvard College for a museum.

639. Other Bequests.— John F. Slater of Connecticut gave (1882) a million dollars for the education of the colored people of the South. The trustees of the Peabody Fund divide the income between the races in proportion to their numbers. The Southern people, during the thirteen years from 1879 to 1892, paid two hundred and sixteen million dollars in taxes for public schools, nearly one half of which has been expended upon schools for colored children.

640. The Credit Mobilier.— This was a corporation organized (1873) by the stockholders of the Union Pacific Railroad for taking contracts in building their railway. This company desired favorable legislation, and gave stock to congressmen to influence their votes. Congress investigated the question, and censured two of its members. Many others were implicated, and these scandals disgraced the country.

641. Panic of 1873.— Another money panic occurred in September of this year, which affected the financial interests of the country ruinously. Some attributed it to the over-issue of currency; others held that the cause was the demonetization of silver by Congress.

642. The Grangers.— This was an association of farmers under the name "Patrons of Husbandry," or "Grangers." The object of the association was to protect farmers against the unjust transportation charges of railroads, and to oppose monopolies.

643. New State.— Colorado was admitted into the Union in 1876 as the thirty-eighth State.

644. The Centennials.— Great and appropriate celebrations were held (1875) in Massachusetts and North Carolina over the centennial anniversaries of Lexington, Concord, Bunker Hill, and the Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence. These were but preludes, however, to the great International Centennial of the Declaration of Independence held at Fairmount Park, Philadelphia (1876). People were there from every civilized nation, and it was the grandest exposition ever witnessed. The Fourth of July was

celebrated in every State by the most imposing ceremonies. Independence Hall in Philadelphia was the chief scene of the demonstrations at that place. The "Centennial Legion," composed of detachments of troops from each of the Thirteen Orig-



Fairmount Park, Philadelphia.

nal States, was an imposing feature. The command of these picked men was given to Gen. Burnside of Rhode Island, and Gen. Heth of Virginia. Thus the first reunion of Northern and Southern troops occurred at the first Centennial.

645. War with the Sioux Indians.—By treaty the Sioux Indians had accepted a large reservation of land in Dakota in lieu of other lands formerly occupied. Their depredations in Montana and Wyoming caused the government to send an army to subdue them. Gen. Custer met them in battle on the Little Big Horn, and was defeated (June, 1876). He and his whole command were slain. The Indians were later driven into Canada.

646. The Elections.—The Republicans met at Cincinnati, and nominated Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio, and William A.

Wheeler of New York. The Democratic Convention met at St. Louis, and nominated Samuel J. Tilden¹ of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana. The vote was closer than at any previous election. Both sides claimed the election of their ticket. There were 369 electoral votes, and 185 were necessary to a choice. The States of South Carolina, Florida, Louisiana, and Oregon were in dispute, the first three having a set of electors for each party. The Republicans found it necessary to control every disputed vote. The Republicans contended that it was the duty of the President of the Senate to decide the dispute between the returning boards, and the Democrats contended that the dispute should be settled under the joint rule controlling both Houses. The House was Democratic, and the Senate Republican, and neither would trust the other. Affairs began to look serious, when the matter was settled by a novel expedient.

647. The Electoral Commission.—It was agreed that a commission, composed of five members from the House, five from the Senate, and five from the Supreme Court, should decide the dispute. This commission was composed of eight Republicans and seven Democrats, and its vote upon all the disputed points was eight to seven,—a strict party vote,—and was cast in favor of the Republican ticket. The fairness of the decision has been questioned, and the “eight by seven commission” has become a matter of derision.

¹ Samuel Jones Tilden was born in New York in 1814, and was graduated at Yale College and New York University. He became a prominent lawyer, and was governor of New York in 1875. He died at his country house, Graystone, Westchester County, N.Y., in 1886.

CHAPTER LVIII.

HAYES'S ADMINISTRATION (1877-81).

Leading Events.

Withdrawal of Troops.
Labor Strikes (1877).
The Mississippi Jetties.
The Nez Perces War (1877).

The Fishery Dispute (1877).
Remonetization of Silver (1878).
Resumption of Specie Payment (1879).
Refunding National Debt.

648. Withdrawal of Troops from the South.—The demand of the South that it be permitted to manage its own affairs without interference on the part of the National Government was granted by President Hayes.¹ He believed that the proper way to establish peace and break down the bitter feelings of the war was to treat the States as such, and not as conquered provinces. He withdrew the soldiers from the Southern States. This brought peace and prosperity. Many of the men who supported Hayes opposed this policy, but the great mass of the people approved it.



Rutherford B. Hayes.

649. Labor Strikes.—In many Northern States the railroad men were dissatisfied. This dissatisfaction resulted in a general "tie-up," or "strike" (1877). The

¹ Rutherford B. Hayes, the nineteenth President, was born in Ohio in 1822. He was graduated at Kenyon College, and studied law at Harvard. He became a brigadier-general in the Union Army, a congressman in 1865, and was three times elected governor of Ohio. As governor, he made a reputation for conservative action and prudence, and was classed among the statesmen of his party. After his term of office expired, he returned to Ohio to follow his profession. As a trustee of the Peabody Fund, he used his influence for several years in promoting the work of popular education. He died in 1893.

miners of Pennsylvania joined the strikers, and in a short time a hundred and fifty thousand men were out of work. Riots occurred in several cities. At Pittsburg about ten million dollars' worth of property was destroyed. The President sent troops to Pittsburg, which restored order at once.

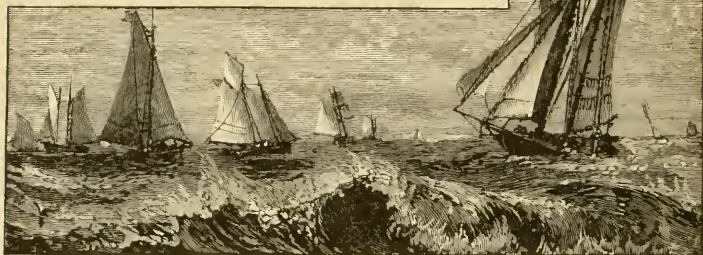
650. The Mississippi Jetties.—To prevent the filling of the mouth of the Mississippi by sand-bars, Congress authorized Capt. Eads of St. Louis, the builder of the steel bridge over the Mississippi at that place, to construct a system of jetties which should deepen the channel by increasing the force of the current. The plan was a success, and ocean steamers now pass up to New Orleans without expense. It is said that the saving to shipping has been two millions of dollars. The benefit redounded to the whole Mississippi Valley, but especially to New Orleans, the largest city of the South.

651. The Nez Perces War.—Lewis and Clarke made a treaty with this tribe in 1806, which was maintained until after the war with Mexico. In 1850 part of their territory (Idaho) was purchased, and a reservation made for them in northeastern Oregon and northwestern Idaho. Some of the chiefs refused to agree, and trouble followed. Gen. Howard marched into their country (1877); but the Nez Perces, led by their chief, Joseph, fled into the mountains. In northern Montana they were checked by Col. Miles. They then crossed the Missouri, only to be surrounded near Bear Paw Mountains. In a battle here, Col. Miles routed them, and killed or captured the whole tribe except a few who escaped under White Bird.

652. Yellow Fever.—In the summer of 1878 the yellow-fever scourge appeared in the Gulf States. New Orleans was the first place afflicted; but in rapid succession the epidemic appeared in Grenada, Vicksburg, Memphis, and many other towns. Memphis and Grenada presented scenes of despair. The people died by thousands. The whole country sent contributions to the suffering South. More than twenty thousand

deaths occurred before the frosts of October put an end to the plague.¹

653. The Fishery Dispute.—From 1782 to 1818 the right of Americans to fish along the shore of the British Possessions was admitted by Great Britain. In 1818 the United States agreed to keep three miles from the inhabited shores of Canada. Disputes arose over the application of the rule,—as to whether the distance should be measured from every point of the shore, or from the headlands only. The



Fishing on Canadian Shores.

trouble was left to arbitrators, who decided (1877) that we should pay Great Britain \$5,500,000 for the use we had made of the waters along the shores of Canada.

654. Remonetization of Silver.—The gold and silver coins were established by law in 1792. The silver dollar weighed 416 grains Troy. In 1837 the weight was reduced to 412½ grains. In 1834 double eagles and three-dollar pieces were authorized.

¹ Examples of heroism were numerous. Every community presented instances of unselfish Christian courage. One of the most noted philanthropists was Dr. Luke P. Blackburn of Frankfort, Ky., who devoted his whole time to the fever-stricken districts. The most conspicuous instance of heroism was that of Miss Mollie Stephens, who traveled on foot from her Indiana home to nurse the sufferers at Memphis. After weeks of unselfish attention to the plague-stricken citizens, she herself was stricken, and died. The citizens of Memphis have placed a monument over her grave in Memphis with the words, "Our Christian martyr: she gave her life for us."

In 1853 the weight of half dollars and the smaller coins was reduced. In 1873 the coinage of silver dollars was stopped. This was called "demonetization of silver," and gold became the standard.¹ A new silver dollar, "the trade dollar," containing 420 grains, was established, only to be abolished in 1876 as a legal tender. For export business its coinage was continued. The cry for silver money became too loud to be ignored, and in 1878 the silver dollar of 1837 (412½ grains) was reestablished, and made a legal tender for all payments except contracts requiring gold. This was called the "dollar of our daddies." The measure, called the "remonetization of silver," was passed over the President's veto. The difficulty in maintaining both gold and silver money is in keeping equivalent coins of the two metals at the same intrinsic value. If a gold dollar is intrinsically worth more than a silver dollar, people hoard the gold until only silver circulates.

655. Resumption of Specie Payment.—The government's promise, printed on paper, to pay coin at some future time, formed the money of the war. Promises of this kind were called "greenbacks" because green ink was used in printing the back of the paper. Greenbacks were worth at times about thirty-three cents and a third on the dollar; that is, the government's promise to pay three dollars was worth one dollar in gold. As the national debt was reduced, the value of the promise increased, and to-day a "paper dollar" is as good as the gold dollar. In 1875 Congress determined to resume specie payments on Jan. 1, 1879; and accordingly on this date the United States began to pay coin for greenbacks.

656. Refunding the National Debt.—During the war the government could borrow money only by paying high rates of interest. The government bonds sold during that period bore from six to seven and three tenths per cent. As the government

¹ Men who favor a single standard are called "mono-metallists;" those who favor gold and silver, "bi-metallists;" also called "single and double standard men."

was paying its indebtedness at maturity, it was found that money could be had at a lower rate. The government, therefore, "refunded" its debt. New bonds, bearing from three to four and a half per cent interest, were sold, and the proceeds used to pay the old bonds.

657. The Elections.—The Republican party nominated James A. Garfield of Ohio, and Chester A. Arthur of New York. The Democratic party nominated Gen. Winfield S. Hancock¹ of Pennsylvania, and William H. English of Indiana. The chief issue was the tariff; the Democratic platform calling for a "tariff for revenue only," and the Republican platform for protection. In the Republican Convention an attempt was made to nominate Grant for a third term. James G. Blaine was pitted against Gen. Grant, and thirty-five ballots were taken before Garfield was nominated as a compromise. The Greenback party was opposed to specie resumption, and put out a ticket which gained no electoral votes. Garfield and Arthur were elected. (Nov., 1880.)

¹ Winfield S. Hancock was born in Pennsylvania in 1824, and died in 1886. He was graduated at West Point, and served in the Mexican war; was made brigadier-general in the Union Army in 1861, and took part in the battles of Antietam, Fredericksburg, Gettysburg, and Spottsylvania. He was made major-general in 1866. He was called the "hero of Gettysburg."

CHAPTER LIX.

GARFIELD-ARTHUR ADMINISTRATION (1881-85).

Leading Events.

Assassination of Garfield (1881).
Chinese Immigration (1882).
Tariff Commission (1882).
Civil-Service Reform (1883).

Arctic Explorations (1879-84).
Scientific Invention.
Brooklyn Bridge (1883).
Washington Monument (1885).

658. Assassination of the President.—Much was expected from President Garfield.¹ He began by selecting an able cabinet, and followed this by an honest effort to select suitable persons for all the offices. This created much ill feeling among office holders and seekers. In the midst of this work a half-crazy office seeker resolved to have revenge upon the President for denying him an office. On July 2, 1881, at a railroad depot in Washington, he shot the President. For eighty days the President fought for life, but was forced to surrender at last. He died at Elberon, near Long Branch, N.J., on Sept. 19. His patience won him the love of the whole nation. He was succeeded by Chester A. Arthur.



James A. Garfield.

¹ James Abram Garfield, the twentieth President, was born in Ohio in 1831. He was graduated at Williams College, and became a professor at Hiram College. He afterwards studied law. He entered the Union Army, and rose to the rank of major-general. He served in Congress eighteen years, and was elected to the Senate, but, before taking his seat, was elected President of the United States. He started from a low station in life, and his success was due to diligence, study, and good habits.

659. Yorktown Centennial.—The centennial anniversary (1881) of the surrender of Cornwallis was celebrated at York-



Chester A. Arthur.

town with great enthusiasm. The chief officers of the United States were present, besides representatives from Great Britain, France, and Germany. At its close, President Arthur¹ had the flag of Great Britain raised, and a salute fired in its honor.

660. Chinese Immigration.—

Contractors imported shiploads of Chinese, or "Coolies," as they were called, to hire them out upon the Pacific coast. Their low wages forced

Americans out of employment, and riots ensued. The treaty with China permitted them to come and go, however, as they pleased. Envoys were sent to China to make a new treaty restricting immigration. This was ratified in 1881. In 1882 a law was passed suspending the immigration of Chinese labor for ten years.

661. Tariff Commission and Reform.—A commission to examine into the tariff, and report a plan for its revision, was authorized by Congress in 1882. This committee recommended changes; but the country was still left under a strong protective system.²

¹ Chester A. Arthur, the twenty-first President, was born in Vermont in 1830, and died in 1886. He was graduated from Union College, and studied law. He helped to organize the Republican party in 1856, and was quartermaster-general for the State in 1861.

² *Synopsis of the Tariffs.*—1. The compromise tariff of 1833, which provided uniform ad-valorem rates on the revenue basis. 2. The tariff of 1842, which was based on protection. 3. The tariff of 1846, based upon revenue, although "incidental protection" was retained for some articles. 4. The tariff of 1857,—a tariff for revenue. 5. The Morrill tariff of 1861, strongly protective. During the war the tariffs became purely protective, with the highest rates known to our history. The average rate was forty-seven

662. Civil-Service Reform.—To regulate the appointment of officers in the civil service¹ of the United States, a law was passed in 1883 which provided for a system of competitive examinations to determine fitness. These examinations were to be held in each of the States, and appointments to be made in proportion to population. A commission of three persons was provided to aid the President in making rules, and to superintend the examinations.

663. Arctic Explorations (1879).—James Gordon Bennett, publisher of the "New York Herald," fitted out the steam-sailing vessel "Jeannette," and placed her under the command of George W. DeLong to prosecute exploration in the Arctic Ocean. The vessel was crushed in the ice, and one third of the company reached Siberia. The Signal Service Bureau, in 1881, sent Lieut. Greely, with twenty-four men, to maintain a station for scientific observation in the extreme north. He reached Fort Conger, and remained there till June, 1884, when he and six of his party were brought back.

664. Great Scientific Inventions.—(1) *The Telephone.* This wonderful invention is credited to Prof. Bell of Massachusetts, and Elisha Gray of Chicago. Profs. Dolbear and Edison are also great inventors of telephonic instruments. (2) *The Phonograph.* This was invented by Thomas Edison in 1877. This instrument receives sounds, and produces them again as they were originally uttered. (3) *The Electric Light.* Thomas Edison made the invention of electric lighting a practical one.

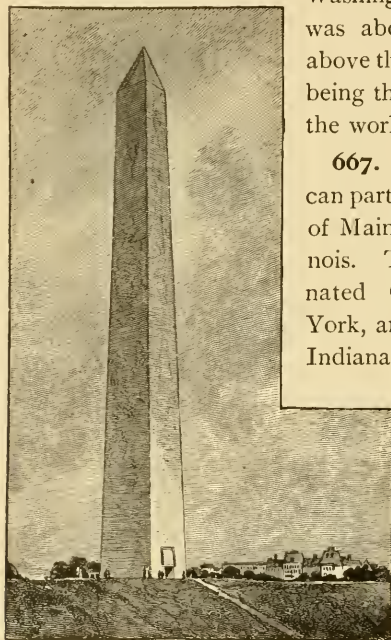
665. A Great Bridge.—One of the greatest works of the nineteenth century is the East River Bridge, joining Manhattan to

per cent of the value of the goods. 6. The tariff of 1883, lessening the rates, but still maintaining the protective feature. Rates on wool and woolen goods, and on steel rails, were raised even above war rates. 7. The McKinley tariff (protective). 8. The Wilson tariff of 1894, with lower duties (p. 414). 9. The Dingley tariff of 1897, with higher duties (p. 416).

¹ Persons employed by the government, except the soldiers and the marines, are in the civil service.

Brooklyn, which was first opened to traffic in 1883. This is the largest suspension bridge in the world. Its total length is 5,989 feet.

666. The Washington Monument.—On Feb. 22, 1885, the great monument erected at Washington in honor of George Washington was completed. Its cost was about \$1,500,000. The shaft above the foundation is 555 feet high, being the highest stone monument in the world.



Washington Monument.

667. Elections.—The Republican party nominated James G. Blaine¹ of Maine, and John A. Logan of Illinois. The Democratic party nominated Grover Cleveland of New York, and Thomas A. Hendricks of Indiana. The Prohibition party nominated John P. St. John of Kansas. The Greenback party nominated Benjamin F. Butler. Neither of the last two received an electoral vote. Many Republicans were dissatisfied with the administration of the civil service, and voted with the Democratic party.

These were called "Mugwumps." Cleveland and Hendricks were elected by a majority of thirty-seven electoral votes.

¹ James Gillespie Blaine was born in Pennsylvania in 1830, and died in 1893. He moved to Maine, and became an editor; was in Congress from 1862 to 1876; and was speaker of the House from 1869 to 1874. He was elected to the Senate in 1877, and was twice a candidate for nomination for the presidency without winning it. He was secretary of state under Garfield, and again under Harrison.

CHAPTER LX.

CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION (1885-89).

Leading Events.

Civil-Service Reform.
Cotton Exposition (1884-85).
Labor Troubles (1886).
Charleston Earthquake (1886).

Presidential Succession Bill (1886).
Interstate Commerce Law (1887).
Dependent Pension Bill (1887).
Department of Agriculture (1889).

668. Civil-Service Reform.—Grover Cleveland¹ was the first Democratic President that had been inaugurated since James Buchanan. Recognizing the legislation as to civil-service reform as obligatory upon him as President, Mr. Cleveland faithfully endeavored to carry out the law. So well did he “hew to the line,” that at least half of those who held government offices continued to hold them despite the fact that they belonged to the Republican party. The Democratic demand, “Turn the rascals out,” was ignored by the President, and this caused him to lose many friends in his own party.

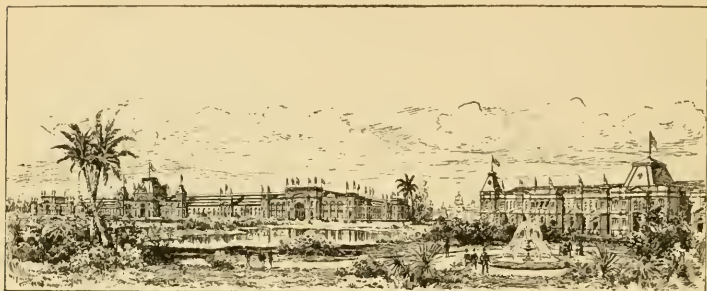


Grover Cleveland.

669. The International Cotton Exposition.—From December, 1884, to June, 1885, the International Cotton Exposition

¹ Grover Cleveland, the twenty-second President, was born in New Jersey in 1837. His father moved to New York, and the son began the study of law in Buffalo at the age of eighteen. In 1881 he was elected mayor of that city, and the next year was elected governor of New York. Mr. Cleveland presents a most remarkable case of rapid advancement in political life. He left the presidency with a character greater than he had at his election. His announcement at the beginning of his term, that “a public office is a public trust,” was strictly adhered to throughout his administration.

was open at New Orleans. It was intended to exhibit (1) the resources of the South, and (2) the resources of the whole country. The exposition was attended by thousands who were as-



International Cotton Exposition Buildings, New Orleans.

tonished at the wonderful display of Southern products. The friendliness of the two sections was greatly increased. Next to the Centennial Exposition of 1876, this was the greatest exhibit ever made in the United States up to that date.

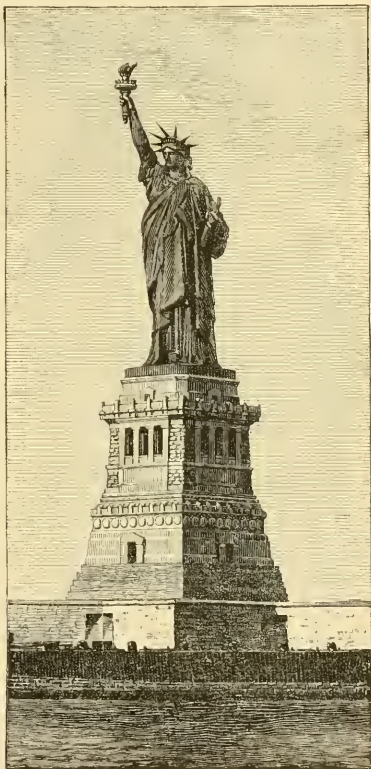
670. Knights of Labor.—The laboring classes formed a union to protect their interests by acting together. The organization was named “Knights of Labor,” and comprehended about all the occupations of the country except the professions. If the hat manufacturers were inequitable towards their employees, the whole organization of knights were empowered to take the matter up, and effect its settlement by requiring all knights to quit dealing with the hatting employers or with any one that favored them. This was called “black listing” and “boycotting.”

671. Strikes.—The year 1886 was noted for strikes. The horse-car drivers and conductors of New York City quit work. The strike then traveled West, until nearly every city was involved in the controversy. The strikers demanded an “eight-hour” contract in some cases, and greater pay in others. Forty thousand men quit work in Chicago, and nearly all of the factories

and workshops were closed. Processions of strikers paraded the streets ten thousand strong.

672. The Chicago Anarchists.—On May 4, 1886, a meeting of anarchists was held near Haymarket Square, Chicago, which was addressed by some lawless characters. The police attempted to disperse the crowd, and were attacked with dynamite bombs. Sixty policemen were wounded, and seven killed. The officers stood to their posts, however, and dispersed the mob. The ringleaders were arrested and executed. All but one were foreigners. The anarchists believe that all forms of government are wrong, and that it is right to overthrow them by any means.

673. The Statue of Liberty.—Many citizens of France who desired to erect a memorial to the United States Government raised a fund for this purpose, prepared a huge statue, "Liberty enlightening the World," and presented it to the United States. Congress set apart Bedloe's Island, in New York Harbor, for its location. This statue was unveiled and lighted in the autumn of 1886. It



The Statue of Liberty.

was prepared by the French sculptor Bartholdi, is made of bronze, and is a hundred and fifty feet high. The top of the

torch is more than three hundred feet above the water. The whole statue represents the Goddess of Liberty holding a torch high in air, illuminating the approach to the American shore. The torch serves as a guide to incoming vessels, and the statue is one of the most beautiful creations of the sculptor.

674. The Charleston Earthquake.—On the night of the 31st of August, 1886, a great earthquake occurred at Charleston, S.C. The shock was felt in nearly the whole region east of the Mississippi, and north to the Great Lakes. In Charleston hardly a building escaped injury, and many structures were completely wrecked.

675. Presidential Succession Bill.—Within a year after the inauguration, the Vice-President, Thomas A. Hendricks, died. This brought up the old question of succession in case the Vice-President should die after becoming President. To provide for this, Congress passed the Presidential Succession Bill (1886), by which, if the President dies and there is no Vice-President, the office of President devolves upon certain members of the cabinet in a fixed order: viz., secretary of state, secretary of the treasury, secretary of war, the attorney-general, the postmaster-general, the secretary of the navy, and the secretary of the interior.

676. Interstate Commerce.—Congress passed a law (1887), requiring that railroads crossing State lines should charge the same proportionate freight rates for all distances and between all places, and that passenger rates should be uniform.¹ The execution of the law was placed in the hands of a committee called "The Interstate Railroad Commission."

677. War Literature.—It is a matter of pride to Americans that the men who fought on each side during the late war

¹ Railroads have competition at their termini, and very little at intermediate points. These points are called the "competing" and "non-competing" points. The "long haul" is generally the whole distance between "competing points;" the "short haul," the distance between "non-competing points." The roads charged less for the "long haul" than for the "short."

were able to write what they saw and did during that struggle. Among these books are, "Memoirs," by Gen. W. T. Sherman; "War between the States," by Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President of the Confederacy; "Memoirs," by Gen. U. S. Grant; others of like character also by Gens. George B. McClellan, John A. Logan, and Philip Sheridan; "Rise and Fall of the Confederacy," by Jefferson Davis; others by Gens. Joseph E. Johnston, John B. Hood, and Richard Taylor.

678. The Dependent Pension Bill.—Congress passed a bill (1887) extending the pension list so as to include all enlisted and honorably discharged soldiers who had become, in whole or in part, dependent upon the aid of others for their support. The President vetoed this as giving the bounty of the government to the undeserving as well as to the deserving.

679. The Elections.—The Republican party nominated Benjamin Harrison of Indiana, and Levi P. Morton of New York (1888). The Democratic party nominated Grover Cleveland of New York, and Allen G. Thurman of Ohio. The Prohibition party nominated Clinton B. Fisk of New Jersey, and John A. Brooks of Missouri, but carried no electoral vote. Harrison was elected by an electoral vote of 233 to 168, although Mr. Cleveland received a majority in the popular vote.

680. Centennial Anniversary of the Formation of the Constitution.—The one hundredth anniversary of the year in which the Constitution of the United States was formed was celebrated on the part of the original States, and by others, by a grand civic and military parade in Philadelphia (September, 1887). President Cleveland, and other Federal and State officials, reviewed the parade.

681. Department of Agriculture.—Congress passed a law (1889) making the Department of Agriculture an executive department, to be in charge of the secretary of agriculture. This raised the number of cabinet officers from seven to eight.

CHAPTER LXI.

HARRISON'S¹ ADMINISTRATION (1889-93).

Leading Events.

Oklahoma Territory (1889).
Johnstown Disaster (1889).
New States (1889-90).
The New Navy.
Ballot Reform.

Farmers' Alliance.
New Orleans Riot (1890-91).
The "Itata" Affair (1891).
The McKinley Bill (1891).
The Columbian Exposition (1892-93).

682. Oklahoma.— In Indian Territory there was a piece of land which attracted the attention of settlers and speculators. Many efforts were made to obtain possession unlawfully, but the



Benjamin Harrison.

United States always interfered to protect the Indian title. At length it was purchased by the government, and early in 1889 thrown open to settlement. The Indians called it "Oklahoma" (the "Beautiful Land"), and the whites retained the name. On April 22, 1889, more than fifty thousand persons were gathered in crowds along the boundaries of Oklahoma, waiting for the time to expire which prohibited their entrance. At twelve

o'clock the whole body crossed the line under the mad impulse of gain, and with hurried step sought the richest lands. Stakes were driven down with lightning speed, and a title made at once.

¹ Benjamin Harrison, the twenty-third President, was born in Ohio in 1833. His grandfather was a President of the United States, and his great-grandfather a signer of the Declaration of Independence. He attended college at Miami University, and studied law at Cincinnati. He moved to Indianapolis, and entered the army as a second lieutenant. He left the army with the rank of brigadier-general. He was sent to the Senate in 1880.

Towns sprang up in a day. Oklahoma City and Guthrie grew with wonderful speed. In four months Guthrie had five thousand people, four daily papers, and several banks.

683. The Johnstown Disaster.—On May 31, 1889, a terrible disaster occurred in western Pennsylvania. A dam which held back the waters of the South Fork of the Conemaugh gave way, and the waters rushed down the valley, carrying with them bridges, houses, churches, factories, mills, and everything else they met on their way. They reached Johnstown, and swept it to ruin. Six other towns were deluged and destroyed. More than two thousand people—men, women, and children—were drowned in less than thirty minutes, along a tract eighteen miles in length. The property loss was more than ten millions of dollars.

684. The New States.—Four new States were admitted in November, 1889,—North and South Dakota, Montana, Washington. The following July (1890) the States of Idaho and Wyoming were admitted. This made the Union include forty-four States.

685. Immigration.—The great effort of Americans for many years has been to separate the good from the bad among those who come to our shores. In one year (1882) over seven hundred and thirty thousand persons arrived at our seaports to make the United States a home. The Federal laws now prohibit the landing in the United States of Chinese laborers, persons under contract to labor, polygamists, idiots, lunatics, paupers, persons affected with contagious diseases, and persons who have been convicted of crimes.

686. The American Navy.—In 1882 Congress authorized the building of three modern war ships,—the “Chicago,” “Boston,” and “Atlanta,”—and almost every year since then it has added to the strength of our new navy. The “Maine,” our first armored cruiser, and the “Texas,” our first battle ship, both authorized in 1886, were launched during Harrison's term. The battle ships “Massachusetts,” “Indiana,” and “Oregon,”

launched in 1893, are of ten thousand tons' displacement, and are among the most powerfully armed and most formidable battle ships ever made.



The "Texas."

687. Australian Ballot Law.—The great frauds practiced upon the ballot in nearly every State led the Legislatures to pass laws to correct "corrupt practices." Since the presidential election of 1888, most of the States have adopted the Australian Ballot System, or some other reform ballot law designed to furnish the ballots at public expense, and to secure secrecy in voting.

688. The Farmers' Alliance.—The "Grange" movement collapsed, because its membership was open to those who were not agriculturists. The mutual protection of farmers against the encroachments of capital was still a question of moment among agriculturists, and a new organization was formed. In the great agricultural State of Texas the first "Farmers' Alliance" was organized in 1877, to oppose the wholesale buying of public lands by individuals. For ten years the "Alliance" was strictly a Southern organization, when, by uniting with the Farmers' Union of Louisiana, another Southern society, it became the "Farmers' Alliance and Coöperative Union of America," and extended its work into many States. This, in turn, absorbed another association, The Agricultural Wheel of Arkansas, Missouri, Kentucky, and Tennessee, and took the name "The Farmers' and Laborers' Union of America." Finally this movement

was combined with the National Farmers' Alliance of Illinois, under the name "Farmers' Alliance and Industrial Union." This organization soon became powerful, and at Ocala, Fla., proposed, in conjunction with the Knights of Labor, to form a third political party to be called "The People's Party." This was ratified at Cincinnati afterwards, and the new party formed.

689. The New Orleans Tragedy.—The Mafia, a secret Sicilian organization, murdered the chief of police of the city of New Orleans on the night of Oct. 15, 1890. This roused the people of New Orleans; and it was resolved that the Italians should be prosecuted, and the Mafia destroyed. Nineteen suspected persons were arrested and indicted. Nine of these were tried. The jury cleared six of them, and a mistrial was entered as to the other three. The same night thousands of citizens marched to the Parish prison, and killed eleven of the Italians (March 14, 1891). There was no effort at disguise. The excuse was, that the law had failed, and that it was the duty of good citizens to protect their homes from assassins. The failure of justice was lamentable, but the mob violence was inexcusable.

690. The "Itata."—Civil war was going on in Chile. One of the combatants sent the steamer "Itata" to San Diego, Cal., to obtain a cargo of arms and ammunition. We were at peace with Chile, and were bound by international law to forbid the use of our soil as a base of operations against Chile. The "Itata" was seized, and placed in charge of a United States marshal. On May 6 the "Itata" steamed out of port, carrying the marshal with her. Fearing that Chile would have a case of indemnity against the United States, orders were issued to the man-of-war "Charleston" to pursue and capture the "Itata" at all hazards. The chase southward lasted twenty-five days. The "Itata" was accompanied by the "Esmeralda," a powerful iron-clad, and a fight was expected. None came, however. The "Itata" surrendered to the "Charleston" at Iquique, and was taken back to California.

691. The Fifty-first Congress.—The Fifty-first Congress expired on March 4, 1891, and was one of the most memorable in our history. A protective tariff bill was passed, which was known as the “McKinley Bill.” Another bill, the “Force Bill,” which provided for federal supervision of Congressional elections, was discussed to a great extent, but failed to pass. The enormous sum appropriated, nearly one billion dollars, gave it the name “The Billion-Dollar” Congress.

692. Reciprocity.—For years the trade of the South American countries, of Mexico, the West Indian Islands, and of Canada, had been absorbed by European powers to the detriment of American commerce. Our system of tariffs was at the bottom of all the trouble. An ingenious scheme was devised by the government by which this trade was to be secured without giving up the entire doctrine of protection. Treaties were to be made with these governments by which certain articles raised by them in abundance were to be admitted into our ports free of all duty, in return for the abolition by them of all duty upon other articles abundant here. This gave a large freedom of trade under the forceful title “Reciprocity.”

693. The World's Fair.—The four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America was celebrated in America by a Columbian Exposition or World's Fair (1893). Congress appropriated ten million dollars to complete the work in a manner fitting to the dignity of the United States. Chicago secured the location, and the Legislatures of nearly all of the States made appropriations to specially exhibit their resources. The dedication of the splendid buildings occurred on the 21st of October, 1892. The immense Manufacturers' Hall was crowded with more than thirty thousand people. On the platform were seated hundreds of Federal and State officers and representatives from almost every nation on earth. This gathering was the largest in history, not excepting the famous Jubilee of Queen Victoria. Parades and civic display were made in all the States.



World's Fair Buildings, Chicago.

694. The Elections.—The Republican party nominated Benjamin Harrison for a second term, and Whitelaw Reid of New York for Vice-President. The Democrats again nominated Grover Cleveland of New York, and Adlai E. Stevenson of Illinois. The People's party nominated James B. Weaver of Iowa, and James G. Field of Virginia. The Prohibitionists nominated John Bidwell of California, and James B. Cranfill of Texas. The election resulted in the defeat of the Republican party, and the election of Grover Cleveland. This is the first instance of the reelection of a President after retirement to private life.

CHAPTER LXII.

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION (1893-97).

Leading Events.

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| 1. Crisis of 1893 and Repeal of the Silver Purchasing Clause. | 4. The Debs Strike. |
| 2. The Wilson Bill. | 5. The Venezuelan Boundary and the Cuban War. |
| 3. Admission of Utah. | 6. The Silver Agitation. |

695. The Crisis of 1893.—Early in this year, the country suffered great financial depression. Real and personal property depreciated, and money was hard to obtain. Banks closed, factories shut down, and every business interest was injured.

696. The Repeal of the Silver Purchasing Clause.—These disasters were charged by many persons to the laws. By the Sherman Act, passed July 14, 1890, the government was required to purchase silver bullion to an amount not exceeding 4,500,000 ounces monthly, and to pay for it by issuing legal-tender treasury notes. Under this law, bullion was piled up in the treasury at the rate of more than 154 tons each month. The bullion value of silver was less than its coinage value, and the law was intended to stop its further decline. It failed to do so, however, and in 1893 the bullion in the silver dollar was worth less than 53 cents. The President convened Congress in extra session, and after a long discussion the silver purchasing clause of the Sherman law was repealed.

697. The Wilson Bill.—The election of Cleveland upon a platform of tariff reform led Congress at its regular session to repeal the McKinley Bill, and to pass the Wilson Bill. By this law, the duties upon many articles were lowered, and upon others removed. A tax was also levied upon all persons whose wealth gave

them an income of \$4000 per annum or more. This income tax was soon afterwards declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, and was never collected. The treasury receipts thus lessened were not sufficient to meet the expenditures of the government. The gold reserve ran down, and the President was forced to make several sales of bonds to meet the emergencies.

698. Admission of Utah.—In January, 1896, by an act of Congress, Utah was admitted to the Union as the 45th State.

699. The Debs Strike.—In a dispute between the managers of the Pullman shops at Pullman, Ill., and their employees, the American Railway Union, through its president, Eugene Debs, espoused the cause of the employees. Debs asked the railroads not to carry Pullman sleeping cars. The railroads refused to comply. A strike was then declared, and attempts were made to stop all trains carrying Pullman sleepers. Rioting ensued, trains were wrecked, and many lives lost. The President issued a proclamation ordering the strikers to obey the laws, and not delay the mails. He also sent troops to Chicago and other points, and the strikers were dispersed.

700. The Venezuelan Boundary and the Cuban War.—These questions threatened to bring on wars with Great Britain and Spain. A commission appointed to investigate the Venezuelan boundary averted the trouble with England. Notwithstanding the popular demand for the recognition of Cuba as a belligerent, the President adhered firmly to a strict neutrality.

701. The Silver Agitation.—The hard times continued. The act of 1873, omitting the silver dollar from coinage, was now considered by many the cause of the financial trouble, and an agitation was begun for the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the old ratio of 16 to 1, independent of the action of other nations. This resulted in the nomination, by the Democrats, of W. J. Bryan for President, and Arthur Sewall for Vice-President, and of Wm. McKinley and G. A. Hobart by the Republicans. The Populists indorsed Bryan, and nominated T. E. Watson for Vice-President. The Silver party indorsed Bryan and Sewall. The Sound-Money Democrats, in separate convention, nominated J. M. Palmer and S. B. Buckner. The Republican candidates were elected.

CHAPTER LXIII.

McKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION (1897-

Leading Events.

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|--------------------------|--|--------------------------------|
| 1. Tariff Act (1897). | | 3. The Spanish War (1898). |
| 2. The Greater New York. | | 4. Hawaiian Annexation (1898). |

702. The Tariff Act of 1897.—Two days after McKinley¹ was inaugurated, he called a special session of Congress to meet March 15. The Republicans then promptly introduced a new tariff bill, providing for greater protection to American industries, and similar in some respects to the McKinley Bill of 1890. It was also intended to increase the revenue; for the expenditures of the government had become much greater than its income. After amendment the bill passed both houses, and was put in force by the President's signature on July 24, 1897.



William McKinley.

703. The Greater New York.—Brooklyn, Long Island City, Staten Island, and a few outlying districts were united with New

¹ William McKinley was born in 1843 at Niles, Trumbull Co., Ohio. After a course of study in the academy at Poland, O., he entered Allegheny College, but the next year (1861) enlisted in the Federal army. After the war he became a lawyer. He was a Republican Representative in Congress 1877-84, 1885-91, and Governor of Ohio 1892-96.

York as a single city, January 1, 1898. This makes New York the greatest city in the world, except London.

704. Spanish War.—For several years Spain had been trying to suppress a rebellion in Cuba by force of arms, without success. Our friendly efforts to induce Spain to grant peace to Cuba produced little result, and in February, 1898, our battleship *Maine*, while on a friendly visit to the Spanish authorities, was utterly destroyed, with many of its crew, by a mysterious explosion in the harbor of Havana. We then prepared for war, which was formally declared in April, 1898. On the 1st of May, our fleet in the Pacific, under Commodore George Dewey, attacked and annihilated the Spanish fleet in the harbor of Manila, Philippine Islands, and an army was sent to take possession of these Spanish islands. Another fleet blockaded the principal ports of Cuba, and early in July sank all the vessels of the Spanish squadron as they attempted to escape from the harbor of Santiago. A few days later the eastern end of Cuba was surrendered to our army, under General Shafter, after a short campaign before Santiago. Another army landed in Puerto Rico, and soon after a peace protocol was signed (August 12, 1898). This provided for the relinquishment by Spain of her sovereignty over Cuba, the cession of Puerto Rico and one of the Ladrões, and the temporary occupation of Manila by the United States. On December 10 a treaty was signed, providing, in addition to the terms of the protocol, for the cession of the Philippines to the United States, and for the payment of \$20,000,000 to Spain.

705. The Annexation of Hawaii.—In January, 1893, the Queen of the Hawaiian Islands was dethroned and a provisional government established, which was controlled by persons of American descent. Application was made for union with the United States, but this was prevented by President Cleveland. The islands were then made a republic. In 1897, the application for annexation being renewed, the matter was brought before Congress and the islands were formally annexed July 7, 1898.

The States and Territories (Census of 1890).

States.

	STATE.	DATE OF ADMISSION.	AREA.	POPULATION.	PLACE OF SETTLEMENT.	DATE OF SETTLEMENT.
1	Delaware	Dec. 7, 1787.	2,050	168,493	Wilmington.	1638
2	Pennsylvania.....	Dec. 12, 1787.	45,215	5,258,014	Philadelphia.	1682
3	New Jersey.....	Dec. 18, 1787.	7,815	1,444,933	Bergen.	1618
4	Georgia.....	Jan. 2, 1788.	59,475	1,837,353	Savannah.	1733
5	Connecticut.....	Jan. 9, 1788.	4,990	746,258	Windor.	1633
6	Massachusetts.....	Feb. 7, 1788.	8,315	2,238,943	Plymouth.	1620
7	Maryland.....	April 28, 1788.	32,210	1,042,390	St. Marys.	1634
8	South Carolina..	May 23, 1788.	30,570	1,151,149	Old Charleston.	1670
9	New Hampshire.	June 21, 1788.	9,305	376,530	Dover.	1623
10	Virginia.....	June 25, 1788.	42,450	1,655,980	Jamestown.	1607
11	New York.....	July 26, 1788.	49,170	5,997,853	New Amsterdam.	1614
12	North Carolina..	Nov. 21, 1789.	52,250	1,617,947	Roanoke River.	1653
13	Rhode Island...	May 29, 1790.	1,250	345,506	Providence.	1636
14	Vermont.....	March 4, 1791.	9,565	332,422	Fort Dummer.	1724
15	Kentucky.....	June 1, 1792.	40,400	1,858,635	Harrodsburg.	1774
16	Tennessee.....	June 1, 1796.	42,050	1,767,518	Fort Loudon.	1756
17	Ohio.....	Feb. 19, 1803.	41,060	3,672,316	Fort Sandusky.	1750
18	Louisiana.....	April 30, 1812.	48,720	1,118,587	Biloxi.	1699
19	Indiana.....	Dec. 11, 1816.	36,350	2,192,404	Vincennes.	1719?
20	Mississippi.....	Dec. 10, 1817.	46,810	1,289,600	Natchez.	1716
21	Illinois.....	Dec. 3, 1818.	56,650	3,826,351	Cahokia.	1682
22	Alabama.....	Dec. 14, 1819.	52,250	1,513,017	Mobile.	1702
23	Maine.....	March 15, 1820.	33,040	661,086	Bristol.	1625
24	Missouri.....	Aug. 10, 1821.	69,415	2,679,184	St. Genevieve.	1755
25	Arkansas	June 15, 1836.	53,850	1,128,179	Arkansas Post.	1686

26	Michigan.....	Jan. 26, 1837.	58,915	2,093,889	Sault St. Marie.	1668
27	Florida	March 3, 1845.	58,680	391,422	St. Augustine.	1565
28	Texas	Dec. 29, 1845.	265,780	2,235,523	San Francisco Mission.	1690
29	Iowa....	Dec. 28, 1846.	56,025	1,911,896	Dubuque.	1833
30	Wisconsin.	May 29, 1848.	56,040	1,886,880	Green Bay.	1745
31	California	Sept. 9, 1850.	158,360	1,208,130	San Diego.	1769
32	Minnesota.....	May 11, 1858.	83,365	1,301,826	Fort Snelling.	1820
33	Oregon	Feb. 14, 1859.	96,030	313,767	Astoria.	1811
34	Kansas	Jan. 29, 1861.	82,080	1,427,096	Leavenworth.	1854
35	West Virginia	June 19, 1863.	24,780	762,794	Hampshire County.	1754
36	Nevada	Oct. 31, 1864.	110,700	45,761	Genoa.	1850
37	Nebraska.....	March 1, 1867.	77,510	1,058,910	Bellevue.	1847
38	Colorado	Aug. 1, 1876.	103,925	412,198	Denver.	1859
39	North Dakota	Nov. 2, 1889.	70,795	182,719	Pembino.	1812
40	South Dakota.....	Nov. 2, 1889.	77,650	328,808	Yankton.	1859
41	Montana	Nov. 8, 1889.	146,080	132,159	Helena.	1861
42	Washington	Nov. 11, 1889.	69,180	349,390	Colombia River.	1811
43	Idaho	July 3, 1890.	84,800	84,385	Near Lewis Fork.	1808
44	Wyoming	July 10, 1890.	97,890	60,705	Cheyenne.	1867
45	Utah	Jan. 4, 1896.	84,970	207,905	Basin Great Salt Lake.	1846

Territories.

1	New Mexico	Dec. 13, 1850.	122,580	153,593	Near Santa Fé.	1595
2	Arizona	Feb. 24, 1863.	113,020	59,620	Near Colorado River.	1700
3	Oklahoma	May 2, 1890.	39,030	61,834		1889
4	Indian Territory....	June 30, 1834.	31,400	186,490		
5	Alaska	July 27, 1868.	577,390	31,705		
6	District of Columbia.	March 30, 1791.	70	230,392		

Presidents of the United States.

	YEAR OF QUALIFICA- TION.	NAME.	WHERE FROM.	TERM OF OFFICE.	POLITICS.
1	1789	George Washington.	Virginia.	8 years.	Federalist.
2	1797	John Adams.	Massachusetts.	4 years.	Federalist.
3	1801	Thomas Jefferson.	Virginia.	8 years.	Republican.
4	1809	James Madison.	Virginia.	8 years.	Republican.
5	1817	James Monroe.	Virginia.	8 years.	Republican.
6	1825	John Quincy Adams.	Massachusetts.	4 years.	Republican.
7	1829	Andrew Jackson.	Tennessee.	8 years.	Democrat.
8	1837	Martin Van Buren.	New York.	4 years.	Democrat.
9	1841	Wm. Henry Harrison.	Ohio.	1 month.	Whig.
10	1841	John Tyler.	Virginia.	3 years 11 months.	Whig and Democrat.
11	1845	James Knox Polk.	Tennessee.	4 years.	Democrat.
12	1849	Zachary Taylor.	Louisiana.	1 year 4 months 5 days.	Whig.
13	1850	Millard Fillmore.	New York.	2 years 10 months 26 days.	Whig.
14	1853	Franklin Pierce.	New Hampshire.	4 years.	Democrat.
15	1857	James Buchanan.	Pennsylvania.	4 years.	Democrat.
16	1861	Abraham Lincoln.	Illinois.	4 years 1 month 10 days.	Republican.
17	1865	Andrew Johnson.	Tennessee.	3 years 10 months 20 days.	Republican.
18	1869	Ulysses S. Grant.	Illinois.	8 years.	Republican.
19	1877	Rutherford B. Hayes.	Ohio.	4 years.	Republican.
20	1881	James A. Garfield.	Ohio.	6 months 15 days.	Republican.
21	1881	Chester A. Arthur.	New York.	5 months 15 days.	Republican.
22	1885	Grover Cleveland.	New York.	4 years.	Democrat.
23	1889	Benjamin Harrison.	Indiana.	4 years.	Republican.
24	1893	Grover Cleveland.	New York.	4 years.	Democrat.
25	1897	William McKinley.	Ohio.		Republican.

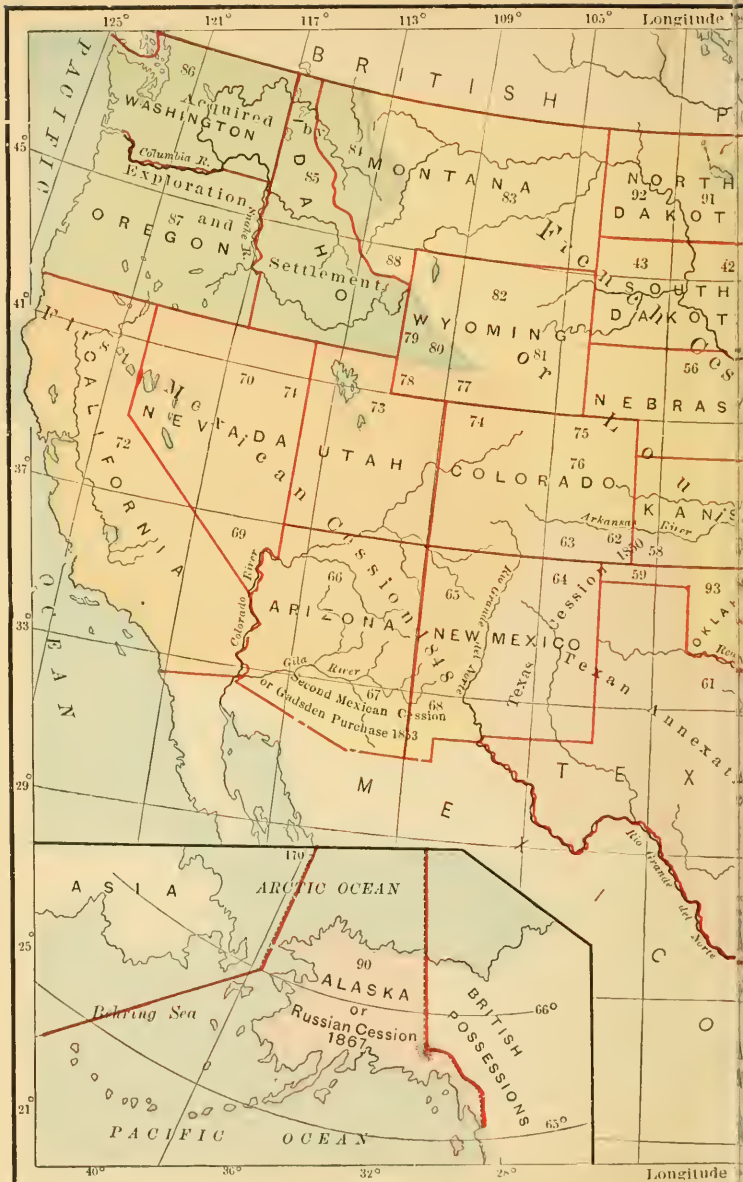
TRANSFERS OF TERRITORY

IN

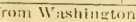
THE UNITED STATES.

(Numerals refer to Map, p. 422.)

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- 1 and 2.—Part of original State of Massachusetts erected into State of Maine, 1820.
 - 3.—Part of public land of the United States.
 - 4.—One of original thirteen States.
 - 5.—Formed into State of Vermont in 1791 out of the State of New York.
 - 6.—One of original thirteen States; included 1 and 2, and extended west to the Mississippi River.
 - 7.—One of original thirteen States.
 - 8.—One of original thirteen States; originally extended west to the Mississippi River.
 - 9.—One of original thirteen States; originally including 5; a claim of Massachusetts to portion of territory of southern New York was settled in 1786 by a convention at Hartford.
 - 10.—One of original thirteen States.
 - 11.—One of original thirteen States; in 1792, 89 added.
 - 12.—One of original thirteen States.
 - 13.—One of original thirteen States; originally embraced 13 and 14.
 - 14.—Ceded to the United States for a capital city by Maryland in 1790.
 - 15.—Ceded to the United States for a capital city by Virginia in 1790; retroceded to Virginia by United States in 1846.
 - 16.—One of original thirteen States; originally embraced 15, 16, 17, 18, 54, and 55.
 - 17.—Formed into State of West Virginia out of Virginia in 1863.
 - 18.—Formed into State of Kentucky, 1792, out of Virginia.
 - 19.—One of original thirteen States; originally embraced 19 and 20.
 - 20.—Ceded to United States by North Carolina in 1790, and with 23, 24, and 28 erected into the Territory south of the Ohio River; admitted as State, 1796.
 - 21.—One of original thirteen States; originally comprised 21, 23, 24, and 28.
 - 22.—One of original thirteen States; originally comprised 22, 25, 26, 27, and 29.
 - 23.—Ceded by South Carolina to United States in 1787; in 1790 transferred to Territory south of Ohio River (23, 24, 28, and 20); in 1802 ceded to Georgia.
 - 24.—Ceded by South Carolina to United States in 1787; in 1790 transferred to Territory south of Ohio River; in 1804 to Mississippi Territory; in 1817 to Alabama Territory, and in 1819 to State of Alabama.
 - 25.—Ceded by Georgia to United States, 1802; transferred to Mississippi Territory, 1804; to Alabama Territory, 1817; and to State of Alabama, 1819.
 - 26.—Erected, with 27, into Mississippi Territory, 1798, subject to Georgia's claims, which were ceded to the United States, 1802; to Alabama Territory 1817; to State of Alabama, 1819.
 - 27.—Same as 26 until 1817, when erected into State of Mississippi.
 - 28.—Ceded to United States by South Carolina, 1787; joined to Territory south of Ohio River, 1790; transferred to Mississippi Territory, 1804; and to State of Mississippi, 1817.



89° 85° 81° 77° 73° 69°



- 29.—Ceded to United States by Georgia, 1802; transferred to Mississippi Territory, 1804; and to State of Mississippi, 1817.
- 30.—Ceded to United States by France, 1803; transferred to Mississippi Territory, 1812; and to State of Mississippi, 1817.
- 31.—Ceded to United States by France, 1803; transferred to Mississippi Territory, 1812; to Alabama Territory, 1817; State of Alabama, 1819.
- 32.—Ceded to United States by Spain, 1819; erected into Florida Territory, 1822; into State of Florida, 1845.
- 33.—Ceded to United States by France, 1803; transferred to State of Louisiana, 1812.
- 34.—Ceded to United States by France, 1803; erected into Territory of Orleans, 1804; admitted as State of Louisiana, 1812.
- 35.—Ceded to United States by France, 1803; included in district Louisiana in 1804; in Territory Louisiana, 1805; in Territory Missouri, 1812; erected into Arkansas Territory, 1819; admitted as State of Arkansas, 1836.
- 36.—Admitted as State of Missouri, 1821.
- 37.—Added to State of Missouri, 1836.
- 38.—Annexed to Territory of Michigan, 1834; to Territory Wisconsin, 1836; to Territory Iowa, 1838; admitted as part of State of Iowa, 1846.
- 39.—Same as above to and including admission to Territory Iowa; transferred to State of Iowa, 1846.
- 40.—Same as 39; transferred from State to Territory Iowa, 1846; to Territory Minnesota, 1849; to State Minnesota, 1858.
- 41.—Annexed to Territory Michigan, 1834; Territory Wisconsin, 1836; Territory Iowa, 1838; Territory Minnesota, 1849; State Minnesota, 1858.
- 42.—As above, to and including Territory Minnesota, 1849; included in Territory Dakota, 1861; to State South Dakota, 1889.
- 43.—Transferred from Territory Missouri to Territory Nebraska, 1854; to Territory Dakota, 1861; to State South Dakota, 1889.
- 44.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; included in Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; to Territory Indiana, 1800; to Territory Illinois, 1809; to Territory Michigan, 1818; to Territory Wisconsin, 1836; to Territory Minnesota, 1849; to State Minnesota, 1858.
- 45.—As above, to and including Territory Wisconsin, 1836; admitted as State Wisconsin, 1848.
- 46.—As 44, to and including Territory Michigan, 1818; to State Michigan, 1837.
- 47.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; Territory Michigan, 1818; Territory Wisconsin, 1836; State Wisconsin, 1848.
- 48.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; transferred to Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; Territory Michigan, 1818; State Michigan, 1837.
- 49.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; transferred to Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; Territory Michigan, 1805; State Michigan, 1837.
- 50.—Ceded by Great Britain; transferred to Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1802; Territory Michigan, 1805; State Michigan, 1837.
- 51.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; transferred to Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; to Territory Michigan, 1805; to State Ohio, 1836.
- 52.—Ceded by Great Britain, 1783; transferred to Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; Territory Michigan, 1805; to State Indiana, 1816.
- 53.—North of 41st parallel ceded by Great Britain, 1783; south of same by Virginia, 1784; Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; admitted as State Ohio, 1803.
- 54.—North of 41st parallel ceded by Great Britain, 1783; south of same by Virginia, 1784; Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; State Indiana, 1816.
- 55.—North of 41st parallel ceded by Great Britain, 1783; south of same by Virginia, 1784; Territory northwest Ohio River, 1787; Territory Indiana, 1800; Territory Illinois, 1809; State Illinois, 1818.
- 56.—Territory Nebraska, 1854; State Nebraska, 1867.
- 57.—Territory Kansas, 1854; State Kansas, 1861.
- 58.—Ceded by Texas, 1850; transferred to Territory Kansas, 1854; State Kansas, 1861.
- 59.—Ceded by Texas, 1850; first organized with Oklahoma Territory, 1890.
- 60.—Ceded by France, 1803; declared "Indian country," 1834.

* All of the French cession west of the Mississippi River (except 34) was ceded to the United States as the "Province of Louisiana" in 1803; erected into district of Louisiana, 1804; into Territory of Louisiana, 1805; into Territory of Missouri, 1812. The subsequent descriptions of territory within the French cession will be carried on from this point,—and a repetition of these changes common to all, avoided.

- 61.—The independent republic of Texas, admitted as State of Texas, 1845.
- 62.—Ceded by Texas, 1850; transferred to Territory Kansas, 1854; Territory Colorado, 1861; State Colorado, 1876.
- 63.—Ceded by Texas, 1850; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1850; Territory Colorado, 1861; State Colorado, 1876.
- 64.—Ceded by Texas, 1850; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1850.
- 65.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1850.
- 66.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1850; Territory Arizona, 1863.
- 67.—Ceded by Mexico, 1853; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1854; to Territory Arizona, 1863.
- 68.—Ceded by Mexico, 1853; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1854.
- 69.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; transferred to Territory New Mexico, 1850; to Territory Arizona, 1863; to State Nevada, 1866.
- 70.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; transferred to Territory Utah, 1850; Territory Nevada, 1861; erected into State Nevada, 1864.
- 71.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; transferred to Territory Utah, 1850; State Nevada, 1866.
- 72.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; admitted as State of California, 1850.
- 73.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; Territory Utah, 1850, State Utah, 1896.
- 74.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; Territory Utah, 1850; Territory Colorado, 1861; State Colorado, 1876.
- 75.—Ceded by France, 1803; Territory Missouri to Territory Nebraska, 1854; Territory Colorado, 1861; State Colorado, 1876.
- 76.—Ceded by France, 1803; Territory Missouri to Territory Kansas, 1854; to Territory Colorado, 1861; to State Colorado, 1876.
- 77.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848, to Territory of Utah, 1850; Territory Nebraska, 1861; Territory Idaho, 1863; Ter. Dakota, 1864; Ter. Wyoming, 1868; State Wyoming, 1890.
- 78.—Ceded by Mexico, 1848; Territory Utah, 1850; Ter. Wyoming, 1868; State, 1890.
- 79.—(The claim of the United States to 79, 80, 84, 85, 86, and 87 is based upon first discovery of Columbia River in 1792; first exploration, by Lewis and Clark, in 1805; first settlement at Astoria, in 1811. Claims allowed by Spain in treaty of 1819, and by Great Britain in treaty of 1846) to Territory Oregon, 1848; Ter. Washington, 1853; Ter. Idaho, 1863; Ter. Wyoming, 1868; State Wyoming, 1890.
- 80.—See 79; to Territory Oregon, 1848; Ter. Washington, 1853; Ter. Nebraska, 1861; Ter. Idaho, 1863; Ter. Dakota, 1864; Ter. Wyoming, 1868; State Wyoming, 1890.
- 81.—Ceded by France in 1803 (except southwest corner, which was ceded by Mexico in 1848); transferred to Territory Nebraska, 1854; Territory Idaho, 1861; Territory Dakota, 1864; Territory Wyoming, 1868; State Wyoming, 1890.
- 82.—Ceded by France, 1803; transferred to Ter. Nebraska, 1854; Ter. Dakota, 1861; Ter. Idaho, 1863; Ter. Dakota, 1864; Ter. Wyoming, 1868; State Wyoming, 1890.
- 83.—Ceded by France, 1803; transferred to Territory Nebraska, 1854; Territory Dakota, 1861; Territory Idaho, 1863; Territory Montana, 1864; State Montana, 1889.
- 84.—See 79; to Territory Oregon, 1848; Territory Washington, 1853; Territory Idaho, 1863; Territory Montana, 1864; State Montana, 1889.
- 85.—See 79; to Territory Oregon, 1848; Territory Washington, 1853; Territory Idaho, 1863; State Idaho, 1890.
- 86.—See 79; to Territory Oregon, 1848; Territory Washington, 1853; State Washington, 1889.
- 87.—See 79; to Territory Oregon, 1848; State Oregon, 1859.
- 88.—Ceded by France, 1803; transferred to Territory Nebraska, 1854; Territory Dakota, 1861; Territory Idaho, 1863; Territory Dakota, 1864; Territory Montana, 1873; State Montana, 1889.
- 89.—Ceded by State of New York, 1781, and Massachusetts, 1785, to United States; transferred to Pennsylvania, 1792.
- 90.—Ceded by Russia, 1867; Territory of Alaska in 1884.
- 91.—As 42 to 1889 when it was transferred to State North Dakota.
- 92.—As 43 to 1889 when it was transferred to State North Dakota.
- 93.—Ceded by France, 1803; declared "Indian country," 1834; Territory Oklahoma, 1890.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF
AMERICA.

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate, that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in

direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world:

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operations till his assent should be obtained; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migrations hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation:

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offenses:

For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, es-

tablishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies :

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments :

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy, scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms : our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war ; in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, in General Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, *Free and Independent States* ; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved ; and that, as *Free and Independent States*, they have full power

to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which *Independent States* may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of DIVINE PROVIDENCE, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Josiah Bartlett, William Whipple, Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.—Samuel Adams, John Adams, Robert Treat Paine, Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND, ETC.—Stephen Hopkins, William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT.—Roger Sherman, Samuel Huntington, William Williams, Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK.—William Floyd, Philip Livingston, Francis Lewis, Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY.—Richard Stockton, John Witherspoon, Francis Hopkinson, John Hart, Abraham Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Robert Morris, Benjamin Rush, Benjamin Franklin, John Morton, George Clymer, James Smith, George Taylor, James Wilson, George Ross.

DELAWARE.—Cæsar Rodney, George Read, Thomas M'Kean.

MARYLAND.—Samuel Chase, William Paca, Thomas Stone, Charles Carroll of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.—George Wythe, Richard Henry Lee, Thomas Jefferson, Benjamin Harrison, Thomas Nelson, Jr., Francis Lightfoot Lee, Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA.—William Hooper, Joseph Hewes, John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Edward Rutledge, Thomas Heyward, Jr., Thomas Lynch, Jr., Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA.—Button Gwinnett, Lyman Hall, George Walton.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I. SECTION 1.—1. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION 2.—1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States; and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

2. No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one Representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers, and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION 3.—1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be, into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen, by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4. The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

SECTION 4.—1. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may, at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION 5.—1. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members in such manner and under such penalties as each House may provide.

2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

3. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy ; and the yeas and nays of the members of either House, on any question, shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither House, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION 6.—1. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same ; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time ; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECTION 7.—1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives ; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States ; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it with his objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each House respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States, and before the same shall take effect shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION 8.—The Congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and

provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States ; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States ;

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States ;

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes ;

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States ;

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures ;

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States ;

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads ;

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries ;

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court ;

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations ;

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water ;

12. To raise and support armies ; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years ;

13. To provide and maintain a navy ;

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces ;

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions ;

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress ;

17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings ; and,

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION 9.—1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or

duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

7. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

SECTION 10.—1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws: and the net produce of all duties and imposts laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II. SECTION 1.—1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of Electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

Clause 3 has been superseded by the 12th Article of Amendments.

4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the Electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President; and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed or a President shall be elected.

7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation, which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

8. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION 2.—I. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of law, or in the heads of Departments.

3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION 3.—He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such

time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION 4.—The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III. SECTION 1.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the Supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION 2.—1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers, and Consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party; to controversies between two or more States; between a State and citizens of another State; between citizens of different States; between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States; and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers, and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION 3.—1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV. SECTION 1.—Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION 2.—1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who

shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SECTION 3.—1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States or of any particular State.

SECTION 4.—The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and, on application of the legislature, or of the Executive (when the legislature can not be convened) against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.—The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress: provided, that no Amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.—1. All debts contracted and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the Confederation.

2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.—The ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE I.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.—A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.—No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself; nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.—In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII.—In suits at common law where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any Court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.—The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.—The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII.—The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.—1. Neither Slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.—1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which

shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of Electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or Elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two thirds of each House, remove such disability.

4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV.—1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

INDEX.

Numbers refer to sections unless otherwise stated.

A

Abercrombie, 230.
 Abingdon, Va., settled, 325.
 Abolition societies, 476.
 Acadia. See Nova Scotia.
 Act of Uniformity, p. 126.
 Adams, John, 259, 278, 348; Vice-President, 358, 372; President, 390-395; biography, 390; death of, 448.
 Adams, John Quincy, secretary of state, 435; President, 444; biography, 445; administration, 445-450.
 Adams, Samuel, 244, 248, 259.
 Æolus, the, 449.
 Africa, exploration of, 18.
 Agriculture, secretary of, created, 372; Department of, 681.
 Aix-la-Chapelle, treaty of, 217.
 Alabama, settled, 204, 403, p. 418; admitted, 442, p. 418; secedes, 528.
 Alabama Claims, the, 632.
 Alamance, N.C., 181; battle of, 255.
 Alamo, fall of, 484.
 Alaska, size and purchase of, 625; admitted, p. 419.
 Albemarle Sound, settled, 172, p. 127.
 Alexandria, Va., seized, 538.
 Algiers, treaty with, 384, 432.
 Alien and Sedition Laws, 392, 395.
 Allen, Ethan, 264.
 Amendments to the Constitution, ten, 374; 12th, 395; 13th, 615; 14th, 618; 15th, 630; text of, p. 438.
 America, early occupants of, 1, 4, 17; discovered by Northmen, 13; discovered by Columbus, 27, 28, 29; discovered by English, 31, 32, 33; naming of, 34; discovered by Spaniards, 36, 43; discovered by Portuguese, 38; first Spanish settlement, 49; first permanent French settlement, 69; first English settlement, 80; first Dutch settlement, 129; first Swedish settlement, 138; Scotch migration to, 180; first Methodist Church in, 198; foreign powers in, 201.
 American System, the, 446, 486.
 Amherst, Gen., 227, 229, 230, 231, 234.
 Amidas, Philip, 56, p. 62.
 Anarchists, Chicago, 672.
 Anderson, Major, 457, 532, 534.
 André, Major, 324.
 Andros, Edmund, 122, 123, p. 128.

Andrustown massacre, 306.
 Annapolis. See Port Royal, N.S.
 Annapolis, Md., meeting, 353.
 Antietam, battle of, 556.
 Antislavery Convention, 471.
 Appomattox Court House, Lee surrenders at, 608.
 Arbitration, of Alabama Claims, 632; of Northwest boundary, 634.
 Arctic exploration, 663.
 Arizona, 503, 510, p. 419.
 Arkansas, first settlement in, 76, 77; included in Louisiana Purchase, 403, 433; admitted, 462, p. 418; secedes, 535; campaign in, 579, 580.
 Armistead, Col. George, 428.
 Arnold, Benedict, 264, 272, 296, 323, 324.
 Arthur, C. A., elected Vice-President, 657; succeeds to presidency, 658; biography, 659.
 Ashburton treaty, 478.
 Ashe, Col. John, 247, 310.
 Asia, trade of, in fifteenth century, 18; position of, on early map, 19.
 Astoria, 488.
 Atlanta, Sherman's march on, 589; siege of, 590; burned, 602.
 Atlantic Cable laid, 624.
 Augusta, Ga., evacuated by British, 309.
 Australian ballot, the, 687.
 Austrian Succession, war of. See King George's war.
 Aversboro, N.C., battle at, 609.
 Ayllon, Lucas de, 42, p. 61.
 Azores, discovery of, 18.

B

Bacon's Rebellion, 100.
 Bad Axe, battle of, 457.
 Balboa, Vasco Nuñez de, 39.
 Ball's Bluff, battle at, 540.
 Baltimore, Lord, 158, 162, 163, 168, 169.
 Baltimore, Md., attacked by British, 427; bloodshed in, 536.
 Baltimore & Ohio R.R. begun, 449.
 Bancroft, George, 181, 499.
 Bank, the U. S., 376, 447, 452, 465, p. 293.
 Banks, Gen., Red River Expedition, 582.
 Barlow, Arthur, 56, p. 62.
 Bartholdi Statue, 673.
 Bastidas, p. 61.
 Baton Rouge captured by Galvez, 336.

- Bear Paw Mt., Nez Perces defeated at, 651.
 Beauregard, Gen., 534, 537, 540, 559, 597.
 Beaver Dam, 553.
 Bee, Gen., 540.
 Bemis Heights, battle of, 296.
 Bennington, battle of, 294, p. 231.
 Benton, T. H., on land laws, 460.
 Bentonville, N.C., battle at, 609.
 Bergen, N.J., settled, 147, p. 127.
 Berkeley, Gov., 99, 100, 147, 173.
 Bermuda Hundred, 87, 88.
 Bible translated by Eliot into Indian language, 126.
 Bidwell, John, nominated for President, 694.
 Bienville, 204, 207.
 Big Bethel, battle at, 540.
 Bill of Rights, p. 126, p. 128.
 Biloxi settled, 204.
 Bimini, island of, 40.
 Birney, James G., 471, 486.
 Blackburn, Dr. L. P., 652.
 Black Friday in Wall Street, 629.
 Black Hawk war, 457.
 Bladensburg, battle of, 426.
 Blaine, J. G., nominated for President, 667.
 Blaine and Grant in convention 1880, 657.
 Blair, Francis P., 546, 627.
 Blair, John, in Supreme Court, 372.
 Blennerhassett, Harman, 400.
 Blockade, foreign, 401; of Southern ports, 542.
 Blount College, Knoxville, 371.
 Blue Licks, battle of, 337.
 Bohemians, revolt of, p. 126.
 Bonaparte, Napoleon, 391, 397, 402.
 Bonds, United States, 656.
 Boone, Daniel, 326, 330.
 Boonesboro settled, 330, 386.
 Boston, Mass., settled, 108; under Andros, 122, 123; massacre, 254; tea party, 256; Port Bill, 257, 259; siege of, 263; evacuation of, by British, 276.
 Boundary, between English and Indians, 238; southwestern, 354, 383; between U. S. and Canada, 478; Oregon, 488; Texas, 481, 486, 489; of U. S., p. 327; Northwest, 634.
 Boycotting, 670.
 Boyne, battle of the, p. 126.
 Braddock, Gen., sent by England to aid colonists, 223; defeat of, 224; plan to defeat French at Lake George, 228.
 Bragg, Gen., in Ky., 562; at battle of Murfreesboro, 564; at Chickamauga, 574; at Chattanooga, 575; at Missionary Ridge, 576; superseded by Johnston, 578.
 Brandywine, battle of, 298, p. 231.
 Breckinridge, Gen., 516, 564, 574, 599.
 Breed's Hill, 269.
 Bridgewater, battle of, 422.
 Brier Creek, battle of, 310, p. 231.
 Brock, Gen., 413, 414.
 Brooklyn, N.Y., settled, 133.
 Brooklyn Bridge, 665.
 Brown, B. Gratz, 635.
 Brown, John, raid of, 521.
 Brown University established, 125.
 Brulé, Etienne, 71.
 Bryan, W. J., 701.
 Buchanan, James, secretary of state, 488; President, 516; biography, 519.
 Buckner, S. B., 701.
 Buckskins, 170.
 Buell, Gen., 559, 562, 564.
 Buena Vista, battle of, 493.
 Bull Run. See Manassas.
 Bunker Hill, battle of, 269, 270, p. 231.
 Bunker Hill Monument, 443.
 Burgoyne, arrives in Boston, 269; invasion of, 293, 294, 295; surrenders, 296.
 Burial customs of mound builders, 3, 4.
 Burnside, Gen., 547, 557.
 Burr, Aaron, Vice-President, 395; biography, 400; Wirt at trial of, 464.
 Butler, Gen. B. F., in command at Fortress Monroe, 540, 597; at Petersburg, 593, 597, 598; nominated for President, 667.

C

- Cabots, voyages of, 31, 32, 33, 40, p. 61.
 Cabral, p. 61.
 Cabrillo, 52.
 Cahokia captured from British, 332.
 Calhoun, John C., 410; secretary of war, 435; biography, 455; death of, 505.
 California, explored, 54; occupied, 492; ceded to U. S., 495; emigration to, 496; constitution, 497; admitted, 502, 503, p. 419.
 Calvert, Cecil, 163, 168.
 Calvert, Charles, 168.
 Calvert, George, 162, 163.
 Calvert, Leonard, 163.
 Cam, Diego, 37.
 Cambridge, Mass., settled, 108.
 Camden, battle of, 320, p. 231.
 Campbell, Gov., 273.
 Canada, territory annexed to, 257; annexation of, 467.
 Canary Islands discovered, 18.
 Canby, Gen., killed by Modocs, 637.
 Canonicus, 110, 120.
 Cantino map, 40.
 Cape Blanco discovered, 37.
 Cape of Good Hope doubled, 36, 37, 54.
 Capitol, Washington, corner stone of, laid, 377; first session at, 394; burned, 426.
 Captain Jack (Modoc), 637.
 Captain Joseph (Nez Perces), 651.
 Carnifex Ferry, W. Va., battle at, 539.
 Carolinas, first attempt to settle, 42; divided into two provinces, 179.
 Caroline, Fort, 48-52.
 Carpenter's Hall, Philadelphia, 259.
 Carpetbaggers in the South, 631.
 Carrick's Ford, battle at, 539.
 Carroll, Charles, 449.
 Carteret, George, p. 117.
 Carthage, Mo., battle at, 546.
 Carthage pillaged, 48.
 Cartier, Jacques, 66, p. 62.
 Carver, John, 105.
 Caswell, Richard, 259.
 Catholics, 78, p. 62, p. 126, p. 127, 164, 167, 183.
 Cavaliers, Land of the, 98.
 Cedar Mountain, battle of, 555.
 Cemetery Ridge, 570, 598.
 Census, the first, 375.
 Centennial celebrations, 644, 659, 680.
 Central America, explorations in, 39, 43.

- Cerro Gordo, battle of, 494.
 Chambersburg, Penn., burned, 600.
 Chambly, Fort, 272.
 Champlain, Samuel de, 64, 68, 70, 71, p. 62.
 Chancellorsville, battle of, 567.
 Chapultepec captured, 494.
 Charlesborg, 66.
 Charles Fort founded, 48.
 Charleston, S. C., settled, 182, p. 127, p. 128; attacked by Spanish, 187; attacked by British, 277; second attack, 318; evacuated by British, 348, p. 231; seizure of forts near, 532; earthquake at, 674.
 Charleston & Savannah R.R., 449.
 Charlestown, Mass., settled, 108; fortified, 269; attacked by British, 270.
 Charter Oak, 123.
 Charters, colonial, 79, 84, 89, 95, 111, 122, 162.
 Chartres, Fort, 208.
 Chase, S. P., 505; in impeachment trial, 621.
 Chattanooga, siege of, 575.
 Cheat Mountain, W. Va., battle at, 539.
 Cherokees, 4, 5, 7, 12, 186, 363; war, 236, 331; removed to Indian Territory, 458.
 Cherry Valley massacre, 306, p. 231.
 Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, 449.
 Chesapeake Bay, Hudson in, 64; explored and mapped by John Smith, 83; marauding parties in, 311.
 Chester, Penn., settled, p. 127.
 Chicago, portage, 73, 75; French in, 203; burned, 633; anarchists, 672; Columbia Exposition, 693.
 Chickamauga, expedition, 333; battle of, 74.
 China, diplomatic relations established between U. S. and, 479; treaty with, 660; immigration from, 660, 685.
 Christiaensen, 130.
 Christiana, Fort, 138.
 Church, first, in Virginia, 80; first Baptist, in America, 112.
 Cincinnati, O., first named, 380.
 Civilization, table showing progress of, p. 23.
 Civil-service reform, 451, 662, 668.
 Clark, George Rogers, 330, 332, 333, 336, 337.
 Clay, Henry, 410; biography, 455; introduces Omnibus Bill, 502, 503; death of, 505.
 Clayborne, William, 165, 168, p. 128.
 Cleburne, Gen., 577, 591.
 Cleveland, G., nominated for President, 667, 679, 694; biography, 668.
 Clinton, De Witt, biography, 416, 442.
 Clinton, Gen., arrives in Boston, 269; attacks Charleston, S. C., 277; succeeds Howe, 303; at Stony Point, 311; captures Charleston, 318; at Yorktown, 345.
 Clinton, George, Vice-President, 400; re-elected, 406; biography, 406.
 Cobb, Howell, 505.
 Cod fisheries, 67.
 Coelho, p. 61.
 Cold Harbor, battle of, 596.
 Colfax, Schuyler, elected Vice-President, 627.
 Colonial Acts, the four, 257.
 Colonies, union of, 117, p. 128, 223; population of, in 1760, p. 153; resistance to Stamp Act in, 246-251.
 Colorado admitted, 643, p. 419.
 Columbia College, 365.
 Columbia River explored, 398, 488.
 Columbia, S. C., entered by Sherman, 602.
 Columbian Exposition, 693.
 Columbus, Christopher, 19-30, 35, 36, 40, p. 61.
 Commerce, of Colonies, 279; English, suffers, 279; restrictions on, 402; Asia opened to American, 515; injury to U. S., 583; interstate, 676.
 Compass, early use of, 18.
 Compostela, 42.
 Compromise, Missouri, 440; of 1850, 502, 503, 504, 509, 516; proposed by Crittenden, 529.
 Concepcion, battle of, 482.
 Concord, skirmish at, 262, 265.
 Confederacy war, numbers, losses, and cost, 613; results of, 614.
 Confederate flag, 535; capital, 537; Government, 531; privateers, 543, 583, 632.
 Confederation, Articles of, framed, 298; States urged to adopt, 350; adopted, 351; weakness of, 352.
 Congo coast discovered, 37.
 Congress, First, 157; Stamp Act, 249; First Continental, 259, 260; Provincial, in North Carolina, 260; Second Continental, 267; Southern States again represented in, 631.
 Connecticut, settled, 113, 127, 136, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; Pequods in, 114; charter, 123; western boundary of, 140; coast ravaged by Gov. Tryon, 311; claims Western lands, 351; ratifies Constitution, 418.
 Constitution of the United States, 157; submitted for adoption, 355; ratified 356, 374; principles of, 357; ten amendments to, 374; 12th Amendment to, 395; 13th Amendment to, 615; 14th Amendment to, 618; 15th Amendment to, 630; Centennial anniversary of, 680; text of, p. 430; text of amendments to, p. 438.
 Constitutions, State, 349, 619.
 Continental Railroad, 508.
 Convention, Constitutional, 355; antislavery, 471; slaveholders', 476.
 Conventions, history of, 463.
 Conway Cabal, the, 297, 304.
 Cooper, Peter, 449.
 Corbin, Francis, 242.
 Corinth, occupied by Union forces, 562, 563.
 Cornbury, Lord, 148, 149.
 Cornstalk, chief of Shawnees, 328, 329.
 Cornwallis, Gen., lays waste New Jersey, 286; outgeneraled by Washington, 288; at Philadelphia, 298; at Camden, 320; at Charlotte, N. C., 321; at King's Mountain, 322; at Cowpens, 338, 339, 340; at Guilford Court House, 341; surrender of, 345.
 Coronado, 52.
 Correspondence, committees of, 258.
 Corte-Real, Gaspar, 38, 40, p. 61.
 Cortes, p. 61.
 Cotton, culture of, 184.
 Cotton Exposition, 669.
 Cotton-gin, the, 388.
 Cowpens, battle of, 339, p. 231.
 Crawford, William H., 416; secretary of treasury, 435.
 Credit Mobilier, 640.
 Creeks in Georgia and Alabama, 424, 458.
 Creole, definition of, 208.

Crevecoeur, Fort, 73, 74.
 Crittenden, John J., 529.
 Cromwell, Oliver, 98, 165, 174, p. 126, p. 128.
 Cromwell, Richard, p. 128.
 Crowninshield, Benjamin W., secretary of navy, 435.
 Crown Point, 228, 230, 264.
 Cuba, discovered, 28; war with Spain, 700.
 Culloden, battle of, 180, p. 126.
 Cumberland Road, 442.
 Cumberland Settlements, 334.
 Cummings, Alexander, 186.
 Cushing, William, in Supreme Court, 372.
 Custer's defeat by Sioux, 645.

D

Da Gama, Vasco, 37, p. 61.
 Dare, Virginia, 59.
 Dartmouth College, 365.
 Davidson Academy, Nashville, 371.
 Davis, Gen., defeats Modocs, 637.
 Davis, Jeff., in Black Hawk war, 457; on slavery, 505; biography, 531; at Danville and Greensboro, 609; arrested, 612; released on bail, 626; on Rise and Fall of the Confederacy, 677.
 Debs, Eugene, 699.
 Debt, refunding the national, 656.
 Declaration of Independence, 157, 278, 291, 396, 449; text of, p. 426.
 Deerfield, Mass., burned, 119, 214.
 De Kalb, Baron, 291, 320.
 De la Roche, 48.
 Delaware, settled, 138, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; annexed to Pennsylvania, 153, 154; Penn's claims in, 159; included under New Albion, 161; ratifies Constitution, p. 418.
 Delaware Bay explored by English, 64.
 Delaware, Lord, 85, 86.
 Democratic party, 389, 396, 445, 450, 465, 516, 524.
 De Monts, 69, p. 62.
 Demosthenes, Forest-born, 246.
 De Soto, Hernando, 46, 47, p. 62, 190.
 D'Estaing, Count, 305, 316.
 De Tonti, 74-77, p. 62.
 Detroit, French in, 203; attacked by Fox Indians, 214; Clarke takes, 332; settled, 403; Hull surrenders, 413; Harrison takes, 421.
 De Vaca, 45, 47, p. 62.
 Dickinson, John, 253, 259.
 Dieskau, Gen., 223, 228.
 Dinwiddie, Gov., 221, 222, 223.
 Dissenters, the, 104, p. 127.
 District of Columbia, abolition of slavery in, 503; admitted, p. 419.
 Doak, Samuel, 371.
 Donelson, Fort, 558.
 Dorchester, Mass., settled, 108; fortification of, 269, 276.
 Dorr Rebellion, 475.
 Douglas, Stephen A., 512.
 Dover, N. H., settled, p. 127.
 Draft for Union Army, 568.
 Drake, Sir Francis, 54, p. 62.
 Dred Scott decision, 519, 521.
 Dunmore, G. v., 273, 328, 329.
 Duquesne, Fort, built, 222; seized by French,

224; taken by Washington, and name changed, 226.
 Durant, George, 172.
 Dustin, Hannah, 210.
 Dutch, early explorations of, 128-137; conquered by English, p. 128.
 Dutch East India Company, 128.
 Dutch West India Company, 131, 135, 137.

E

Eads, Capt., 650.
 Early's raid into Maryland, 600.
 Earth, ideas as to shape of, in fifteenth century, 17, 19.
 Earthquake, Charleston, 674; New Madrid, 417.
 East Indies, route to, 18; maps of, 20.
 East Jersey settled, 147.
 Edict of Nantes, revocation of, p. 126.
 Education, earliest, in America, 52; in the Colonies, 91, 92, 101, 109, 125, 135, 146, 173, 189, 365, 396; in the Northwest, 360; in hands of Church, 366; State, 367-371; progress of, 1800-50, 518; in the South, funds for, 638, 639.
 Electoral Commission, 647.
 Electrical inventions, 664.
 Eliot, John, 126.
 Elizabeth, N. J., settled, 147, p. 127, p. 128.
 Ellsworth, Col., 538.
 Emancipation Proclamation, 565.
 Embargo Act, 402, 407, 445.
 Emigrant Aid Societies, 513.
 Emigration, 470.
 Endicott, John, 108.
 England, France at war with, 401.
 English, early explorations of, 31-33, 37, 53-64; settlement of, 79-92; claims in America, 202.
 English, W. H., nominated for Vice-President, 657.
 Epidemic, yellow-fever, 1878, 652.
 Eratosthenes, geographical ideas of, 17.
 Eric the Red, 13.
 Erie Canal, 442, 449.
 Espejo, 52.
 Espiritu Santo, the, 41, 47, 72.
 Etchoe, Indian attack at, 237.
 Entaw Springs, 344, p. 231.

F

Fairfield, Conn., burned, 311.
 Fair Oaks, battle of, 550.
 Famine in Virginia, 86.
 Farmers' Alliance, 688.
 Farragut, Admiral, 561, 581.
 Federal party, 389, 395, 445.
 Federalist, the, 407.
 Federalists, definition of, 356, 445; of New England, 429.
 Fenian excitement of 1866, 622.
 Ferdinand of Spain, 22, 30.
 Ferrel, 52.
 Field, C. W., lays Atlantic Cable, 624.
 Fifty-four forty, etc., 486.
 Fillmore, Millard, Vice-President, 501; biography, 502; President, 502.

- Financial panic of 1873, 641.
 Financial depression of 1893, 695.
 First Continental Congress, 259, 260.
 Fisher, Fort, fall of, 604.
 Fisheries, cod, 67.
 Fishery dispute, 653.
 Fishing Creek, battle at, 321, p. 231.
 Five Forks, battle of, 607.
 Five Nations, the, 134, 219. See *Iroquois*.
 Flag, the naval, 275; first American, 292; Confederate, 535.
 Flax, culture of, 87.
 Florida, discovered, 40, 41, 43; Gomez in, 43; De Narvaez in, 44; De Soto in, 46; settled by Spaniards, 49, p. 419; first English description of, 53; ceded to England, 234; Seminole war in, 437; purchased by U. S., 439; admitted, 487, p. 419; secedes, 528; invasion of, 584.
 Floyd, Gen., 539.
 Foote, Henry S., 505.
 Force Bill, the, 691.
 Forrest's Cavalry Expedition, 586.
 France, asked to aid America, 291; agrees to aid America, 302; acknowledges independence of America, 332; troubles with, 391; at war with England, 401.
 Franklin, battle of, 591.
 Franklin, Benjamin, 216, 250, 262, 278; proposes union, 223; sent to France, 291.
 Franklin, Sir John, 506.
 Franklin, State of, 363, 364, 371.
 Fraziers Farm, 553.
 Fredericksburg, battle of, 557; army at, 566.
 Free Soil party, 501.
 Free trade, 410.
 Fremont, John C., 516.
 French, settle Port Royal, 48; butchery of, at Fort Caroline, 50; recapture Fort Caroline, 51; explorations, 65-86; possessions in America, 203; massacre of, by Natchez Indians, 207; first settlers of Gulf region, 208.
 French and Indian war, p. 126, p. 128, 218-238; revolution, 378; Directory, 391.
 Frontenac among the *Iroquois*, 212.
 Frontenac, Fort, 73, 74, 212, 230. See *Kingston*.
 Fuca, Juan de, 52.
 Fugitive-Slave Law, 503, 504, 511.
 Fulton, Robert, 404.
 Fulton's Folly. See *Steamboat*, first.
- G**
- Gadsden, Christopher, 249, 259, 349.
 Gadsden Purchase, 510.
 Gage, Gen., 261, 262, 263, 269, 270, 271.
 Gaines Mill, battle at, 553.
 Garfield, James A., elected President, 657; assassinated, 658; biography, 658.
 Garland, A. H., contests test oath, 620.
 Garnett, Gen., 537, 539.
 Gates, Gen., 296, 304, 320.
 Gates, Sir Thomas, 85, 86, 87.
 Genet affair, the, 378.
 George III. of England, p. 128, 241.
 George, Fort, 419.
 Georgia, settlement and growth of, 190-200, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; in possession of British, 316, 317; education in, 370; slavery in, 405; secedes, 528; ratifies Constitution, p. 418.
 German Flats massacre, 306.
 Germantown, 156, 299, p. 231.
 Gerry, Elbridge, Vice-President, 416.
 Gettysburg, battle of, 570.
 Ghent, treaty of, 431, 445.
 Gilbert, Sir Humphrey, 55, p. 62.
 Gold, quest for, in Georgia, 190; discovery of, in California, 496; market, panic in the, 629.
 Gomez, Stephen, map drawn by, 43.
 Gorges, Ferdinand de, 115.
 Gosnold, Bartholomew, 61, p. 62.
 Government, first democratic, in America, 89; State and Federal, 349-359; seat of U. S., 359, 377.
 Grand Cañon of Colorado, 52.
 Grand Model, the, 174, 176.
 Grangers, 642.
 Grant, U. S., in Missouri, 545; obtains first distinction, 558; in Mississippi, 563, 566, 571; made commander in chief, 587, 588, 593; at Chancellorsville, 594; at Spottsylvania, 595; at Cold Harbor, 596; receives Lee's surrender, 608; made general, 623; elected President, 627; biography, 628; re-elected, 635; and Blaine in convention, 1880, 657; *Memoirs of*, 677.
 Gray, Capt., in Columbia River, 488.
 Great Bridge, battle at, 273.
 Great Britain, Bill to transport Offenders to, for Trial, 257; war with, 412.
 Great Meadows, French routed at, 222.
 Great Wolf of North Carolina, 255.
 Greeley, Horace, on Jeff. Davis's bail bond, 626; nominated for President, 635; biography, 635.
 Greely, Lieut., expedition, 663.
 Green, Roger, 172.
 Greenback party, 657, 667.
 Greenbacks, 655.
 Greenbrier Company, 220.
 Greene, Nathanael, 282, 297; succeeds Gates, 320, 322; against Cornwallis, 338; at Cowpens, 339; retreat across North Carolina, 340; at Guilford Court House, 341; at Hobkirk's Hill, 342; at Ninety-Six, 343; at Eutaw Springs, 344.
 Greenland, settlement of, 13; extinction of Northmen in, 16; Corte-Real in, 38.
 Green Mountain Boys, 264.
 Grenville, Lord, 241, 245.
 Grinnell Expedition, 506.
 Guadalupe-Hidalgo, treaty of, 495.
 Guilford Court House, battle of, 341, p. 231.
 Gunnbjorn sights Greenland, 13.
 Gustavus Adolphus, 138, p. 126.
- H**
- Hadley, Mass., burned, 119.
 Hagerstown captured by Early, 600.
 Haiti discovered, 28, 29.
 Halleck, Gen., 554.
 Hamilton, Alexander, secretary of treasury, 372; attacks Jefferson, 389; fights duel with Burr, 400; Jefferson attacks, 445.
 Hampton Roads Conference, 606.

- Hancock, W. S., 570; nominated for President, 657; biography, 657.
 Hardin, Col., 380.
 Harlem Heights, battle of, 283.
 Harmar, Gen., 380.
 Harper's Ferry, seized, 521; arsenal at, burned, 535; surrendered to Jackson, 556.
 Harrison, Benj., nominated for President, 679, 694; biography, 682.
 Harrison, Robert H., 372.
 Harrison, William Henry, 411; President, 472; death of, 473; biography, p. 292.
 Harrodsburg, Ky., settled, 328, 330, 386.
 Hartford, Conn., settled, 113, 136.
 Hartford Convention, the, 429.
 Harvard College, 109, 125, 365.
 Harvey, John, 260.
 Havana, massacre at, 48.
 Haverhill, Mass., burned, 210.
 Hawkins, William, 53, p. 62.
 Hayes, R. B., elected President, 646; biography, 648; withdraws troops from South, 648.
 Hayne, Senator, 453.
 Hebrew Colony in Georgia, 199.
 Helluland named, 14.
 Hendricks, T. A., nominated for Vice-President, 646; elected Vice-President, 667; death of, 675.
 Hennepin, Father, 74.
 Henrico City, 87.
 Henry, Fort, 558.
 Henry of Portugal, explorations of, 18, 19.
 Henry, Patrick, 243, 246, 259, 332.
 Herjulfsson in Greenland, 13, 14.
 Hessians, 268, 287, 303.
 Highlanders, Scotch, 200, 274.
 Hill, A. P., Gen., in battle of Gettysburg, 570; killed, 607.
 Hindman, Gen., 579.
 Hobart, G. A., 701.
 Hobkirk's Hill, 342, p. 231.
 Hochelaga, 06.
 Holland, English war with, p. 126, 315.
 Holy Alliance, the, 441.
 Honduras discovered, 29.
 Hood, Gen., 590, 591, 592.
 Hooker, Gen., 557, 566, 567, 575, 576, 577.
 Hope, Fort, 136.
 Hornet's Nest, the, 321.
 Horseshoe Bend, battle of, 425.
 House of Burgesses, 91, 101.
 Houston, Sam., 482, 485.
 Howard, Gen., 651.
 Howe, Elias, 500.
 Howe, Gen., at Boston, 269; evacuates Boston, 276; at Long Island, 281; at White Plains, 284; in Philadelphia, 298, 299.
 Hudson, Henry, 64, p. 62.
 Hudson, Port, captured, 572.
 Hudson River, discovery of, 64, p. 128.
 Huguenots, the, 181, 183, p. 126.
 Hull, Gen., 413.
- I
- Iberville, Le Moyne de, 204.
 Iceland, settlement of, 13.
 Idaho admitted, 684, p. 419.
 Illinois, formed from Northwest Territory, 361; admitted, 442, p. 418; settled, p. 418; County, 74, 76, 77, 205, 208, 329, 332; county of, established, 332; River explored by Joliet, 72.
 Immigration, 660, 685.
 Impeachment trial of President Johnson, 621.
 Importation Act, 239.
 Impressment of seamen by England, 408, 412, 431.
 Independence Hall, 278.
 Indian Territory, removal of Indians to, 458; admitted, p. 419.
 Indiana, settled, 208, p. 418; formed from Northwest Territory, 361, 403, 433; admitted, 433, p. 418.
 Indians, American, 6-12; civilization of, 52, 126, 146, 164, 458; massacres in Virginia, 92, 94, 97; in Massachusetts, 119, 121, 210, 214; buying land of, 133; Iroquois, 134, 178, 219; treaties with, 155, 186, 192, 207, 238, 325, 381; in North Carolina, 178; at Natchez, Miss., 207; in New York, 210, 307; in Ohio, 225, 327, 380, 411; Cherokee war, 236, 237, 331; at Wyoming and Cherry Valley, 306; in Indiana, 411; at River Raisin, 418; Creek war, 424; Seminole war, 437; Black Hawk war, 457; Modoc war, 637; war with the Sioux, 1876, 645; war with the Nez Percés, 651.
 Iowa, admitted, 498, p. 419; settled, p. 419.
 Irish settlement in Iceland, 13.
 Iron, manufacture of, 87.
 Ironclad oaths, 603.
 Iroquois, the, 5, 70, 71, 134, 178, 219; treaty of, with Dutch, 131; Frontenac among, 212; villages of, 212; different names of, 219.
 Isabella of Spain, 22, 23.
 Island No. 10, 560.
 Italians in Georgia, 194.
 Itata affair, the, 690.
- J
- Jackson, Fort, 561.
 Jackson, A., in Creek war, 424, 430, 451; in Seminole war, 437; elected President, 450; biography, 451; on tariff, 454; vetoes, 456; recommends Benton's land laws, 460; result of administration, 461; reflected, 464;
 Jackson, T. J., at Manassas, 540; receives name Stonewall, 540; raid into Virginia, 551; in Seven-Days' battle, 553; in second battle of Manassas, 555; at Harper's Ferry, 556; death of, 567.
 Jacobite Rebellion, p. 126.
 Jamaica' discovered, 29.
 James River, discovery of, 80.
 Jamestown, settled, 80, 81, 85, 86, p. 127, p. 128; burned, 100.
 Japan, treaty with, 515.
 Jaques, p. 61.
 Jasper, Sergeant, 277, 316.
 Jay, John, 259, 348, 372, 382.
 Jefferson, Fort, 336.
 Jefferson, Thomas, on taxation of colonies, 241; prepares Declaration of Independence, 278; on education, 368; secretary of state, 372; leader of Republican (Democratic) party, 389; Vice-President, 390; elected President, 395; administration, 396-406;

- biography, 395; reflected, 400; Embargo Act, 402, 445; death of, 448.
 Jenkin's Ferry, 580.
 John II. of Portugal, 21.
 Johnson, Andrew, elected Vice-President, 603; becomes President, 611; biography, 615; policy of, 615; impeachment trial of, 621.
 Johnson, Gen., 228.
 Johnson, Richard M., elected Vice-President, 464.
 Johnston, Gen. Albert Sidney, in Black Hawk war, 457; at Pittsburg Landing, 559.
 Johnston, Joseph E., 537, 540, 549, 550, 578, 589, 592, 611.
 Johnstown disaster, 683.
 Joliet, 72, 73, p. 62.
 Jones, Paul, 314, 315.
 Jumonville, 222.
- K**
- Kanawha, battle of, 329.
 Kane, Dr., 506.
 Kansas admitted, 522, p. 419.
 Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 512, 513.
 Kaskaskia, 208, 332.
 Kearny, Gen., 492.
 Kentucky, settled, 328, 329, 361, 362, p. 418; part of Virginia, 332; Bird's expedition into, 335; Indians attack, 337; Indian claims to, released, 381; admitted, 386, p. 418; supports Confederate States, 545; invasion of, 562.
 Kettle Creek, battle of, 309, p. 231.
 Key, Francis Scott, 428.
 Kieft, William, 132.
 King George, Fort, 187.
 King George's war, p. 126, p. 128, 209, 216.
 King Philip's war, 119, p. 128.
 King William's war, p. 128, 209, 210.
 King's Mountain, battle of 322, p. 231.
 Kingston, Can., French in, 203, 212.
 Knights of the Golden Horseshoe, 103.
 Know-Nothing party, 514.
 Knox, Henry, secretary of war, 372.
 Knoxville, siege of, 578.
 Kosciusko, 291, 338.
- L**
- Labor, troubles, 649, 671; knights of, 670.
 Labrador, named, 38; Gomez in, 43.
 Laconia, 115.
 La Cosa, Juan de, 40, p. 61.
 Lafayette, Fort, 311.
 Lafayette, Gen., 291, 378, 443.
 Lake Champlain, 64, 70.
 Lake Erie, battle of, 420.
 Lake George, battle of, 228, 230.
 Lake Huron discovered, 70.
 Lake Maurepas, 204.
 Lake Pontchartrain, 204.
 Lake Region, discoveries in, 70, 71.
 La Navidad, Fort, 28.
 Land, purchase of, from Indians, 133; survey, government system of, 362; grants, 369; laws, 460.
 Lane, Ralph, 57, p. 62.
 La Salle, Cavalier, 73-77, p. 62.
 Laudonnière, 48, 50, p. 62, 190.
 Laurens, Henry, 183, 348.
 Law, John, p. 126, p. 128, 205.
 Leavenworth, Fort, 492.
 Le Bœuf, Fort, 220, 221.
 Lee, Fort, 285, 286.
 Lee, Gen. Charles, 277, 285, 304.
 Lee, Major Henry, captures Paulus Hook, 313; at Camden and Sumter, 338, 342; at whisky insurrection, 379.
 Lee, Richard Henry, 259, 278.
 Lee, Robert E., at Vera Cruz, 494; captures John Brown, 521; in command of army in W. Va., 539, 550; defeated at Cheat Mt., 539; in Seven-Days' battle, 553; in second battle at Manassas, 555; invades Maryland, 556; at Chancellorsville, 567, 594; invades Pennsylvania, 569; at Gettysburg, 570; in command at South, 587; his plan, 588; at Spottsylvania Court House, 595; at Cold Harbor, 596; surrenders, 608; biography, 608.
 Legislature, first, in America, 91, p. 128; first, in New York, 144; first, in New Jersey, 149; first, in South Carolina, 188.
 Lemoine, Francis J., 471.
 Leopold, persecutions of, p. 126.
 Lepe, p. 61.
 Letters of a Pennsylvania Farmer, 253.
 Lewis and Clark's expedition, 398, 488.
 Lexington, battle of, 261, 265, p. 231.
 Leyden colonists, 104.
 Liberal-Republican party, 635.
 Libraries, early, in South Carolina, 189.
 Lief in Markland and Vinland, 14.
 Light Horse Harry. See Lee, Henry.
 Lincoln, Abraham, in Black Hawk war, 457; President, 524, 533; effect of election of, on the South, 525; biography, 533; issues Emancipation Proclamation, 565; reflected, 603; meets Alex. H. Stephens, 606; assassinated, 610.
 Lincoln, Gen. Benjamin, at Savannah, 316; surrenders Charleston, 318.
 Literature (1800-50), 518; war, 677.
 Little Horn, battle of, 645.
 Little Turtle, 380.
 Livingston, Robert R., 278.
 Livingston, William, 259.
 Locke, John, 174.
 Locomotive, first, in America, 449.
 Log chapel on the Rappahannock, 78.
 Logan, J. A., for Vice-President, 667.
 London or Virginia Company, p. 62, 79, 80, 84, 89, 93.
 Long Hunters, 326.
 Long Island, settlement of, 136; ceded to English, 140; included under name "New Albion," 161; battle of, 281, 282, p. 231.
 Long Parliament, 147, p. 126.
 Longstreet, Gen., 570, 574, 578.
 Lookout Mountain, battle of, 575.
 Loring, Gen. W. W., 539.
 Loudon, Fort, 236, 237, p. 418.
 Louisburg, French in, 203; siege of, 216, 217; captured by English, 227.
 Louisiana, named, 75; first sugar cane in, 78; French in, 201-208; settled, 204, p. 418; slavery introduced into, 205; districts of,

- 208; Acadians in, 227; ceded to Spaniards, 234; admitted, 433, p. 418; western boundary of, 481; secedes, 528; governors of, p. 326; campaign against, 582; political troubles in, 636.
- Louisiana Purchase, 397, 403, 433, 440, 486.
- Lubbock, Gov., arrested, 612.
- Lundy's Lane, battle of, 422.
- Lyon, Capt., 546.
- M**
- McClellan, Gen. G. B., takes command of Union Army, 539; succeeds Scott, 541; at head of Army of Potomac, 549, 550, 551, 553, 555; succeeded by Burnside, 557; defeated for presidency, 603.
- McCormick's reaper, 461.
- McCullough, Gen., 546, 547.
- McDonald, Gen. Donald, 274, 277.
- McDowell, Gen., 540, 549, 551.
- McHenry, Fort, 428.
- McKinley Bill, the, 691.
- McKinley, William, 701, 702.
- McLeod, Allan, 274.
- Madeira Islands discovered, 18, 37.
- Madison, James, President, 406, 433.
- Magaw, Col., 285.
- Magellan, 36, 37, 39, 43, p. 61.
- Magruder, Gen., 540, 581.
- Maine, explored by English, 61-63; Jesuit mission in, 78; settled, 115, 127, p. 418; admitted, 442, p. 418.
- Malvern Hill, 553.
- Manassas Junction, first battle at, 540; second battle at, 555.
- Manchac, Fort, 336.
- Manhattan Island, settled, 129, p. 127, p. 128; purchased from Indians, 133.
- Manuel Nuno, p. 61.
- Maps, showing distribution of Indian tribes, 12; Iceland and Greenland, 13; improvement in early, 18; of 15th and 16th centuries, 19, 38, 40, 43; showing voyages of Columbus, 26; showing voyages of Cabots, 32; showing De Soto's route, 46; Vancouver's, 52; Champlain's, 68; Joliet and Marquette's, 72; of first English settlements, 80; of early New England settlements, 106; of East and West Jersey, 147; Quebec in 1759, 233; of Boston, 269; of New York City, 280; of New Jersey in 1778, 285; Burgoyne's invasion, 294; of Philadelphia, 299; of Carolinas, 318; of Yorktown, 345; of U. S. in 1783, 348; showing center of population in U. S., 375; Indian wars in Ohio, 380; of U. S. in 1803, 397; Western battlefields, 417; Niagara frontier, 422; Creek war, 424; Washington, 426; of U. S. in 1819, 439; the National Road, 442; Black Hawk war, 457; of Texas, 482; eastern Mexico, 494; of U. S. in 1848, 495; of U. S. in 1853, 511; of Charleston harbor, 532; first battle of Manassas, 540; Richmond, 553, 607; second battle of Manassas, 555; Forts Henry and Donelson, 558; New Orleans, 561; campaigns in West, 562; Lee's invasion of Penn., 569; Gettysburg, 570; Vicksburg, 571; Morgan's raid, 573; Chattanooga, 576; battlefields in Arkansas, 579; Mississippi and Tennessee, 585; Atlanta campaign, 589; Grant's Va. campaign, 592; Sherman's campaign in N.C., 609.
- Marietta, O., founded, 361.
- Marion, Francis, 183, 319, 321, 342.
- Markland, discovery of, 14.
- Marque, letters of, 543.
- Marquette, Father, 72, p. 62.
- Marshall, John, biography, 458.
- Martin Academy, 371.
- Martin, Gov., 260, 274.
- Martyr, Peter, map drawn by, 40.
- Maryland, boundary between Pennsylvania and, 159, 168; included under New Albion, 161; settled, 163, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; a royal province, 169; signs Articles of Confederation, 351; education in, 370; ratifies the Constitution, p. 418; invaded, 556.
- Maryland Liberty Lottery, 253.
- Mason and Dixon's Line, 159.
- Mason and Slidell, 544.
- Massachusetts, settled, 106, 127, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; colony, 108, 111; royal province, 122; charter, 123; Bill to regulate Government of, 257; claims Western lands, 351; slavery introduced in, 405; ratifies Constitution, p. 418.
- Massacre by Indians in Virginia, 92, 94, 97; in Massachusetts, 119, 121, 210, 214; in North Carolina, 178; in Mississippi, 207; in New York, 210; Boston, 254; Wyoming and Cherry Valley, 306; of River Raisin, 418; Mountain Meadows, 520.
- Massasoit, 106, 119.
- Maumee Rapids, battle at, 380, 381.
- May, Cornelius, 132.
- Mayflower, the, 105, 194.
- Maysville Road Bill, 456.
- Meade, Gen., 569, 588.
- Mechanicsville, battle of, 553.
- Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence, 181, 265, 266.
- Megander, 48.
- Meigs, Fort, besieged, 419.
- Memphis, French in, 203.
- Menendez, 49-52, p. 62.
- Mennonites, 156.
- Mercer, Fort, 299, p. 231.
- Mercer, Gen., 289.
- Meridian, Miss., Sherman's expedition to, 585.
- Methodism, rise of, 198.
- Mexico, early voyages to, 44, 45, 47, 52; struggle of, for independence, 441, 482, 485; war with, 489-495; treaty of, with U. S., 495.
- Miami, Fort, 73, 75, 220, 380.
- Michigan, formed from Northwest Territory, 361, 403; settled, 403, p. 419; admitted, 462, p. 419.
- Middleton, Arthur, 185.
- Mifflin, Fort, 299.
- Milan Decree, 402.
- Miles, Col., defeats Nez Percés, 651.
- Mill-boy of the Slashes. See Clay, Henry.
- Mims, Fort, 424.
- Minnesota admitted, 523, p. 419.
- Mint, the United States, 376.
- Minuit, Peter, 132, 133.
- Minute-men, 261.
- Missionary Ridge, battle of, 575, 576.

- Missions, Catholic, 78, p. 62, 164; Moravian, 146; Spanish, in Texas, 482.
- Mississippi Company, 205.
- Mississippi River, discovered, 41, 47; De Vaca in, 45; Joliet and Marquette in, 72; La Salle in, 73-76; De Tonti explores, 74-77; French occupy valley of, 203; American boundary of, 336, 354; opened to American navigation, 383; controlled by Union forces, 560, 571, 572; jetties, 650.
- Mississippi, State of, settled, 204, p. 418; Territory formed, 403; admitted, 442, p. 418; secedes, 528; battles in, 563.
- Missouri Compromise, 440.
- Missouri River, Joliet's report of, 72; explored, 398.
- Missouri, State of, settled, 208, 397, p. 418; included in Louisiana Purchase, 403, 433; admitted, 440, 442, p. 418.
- Mobile, French in, 203; settled, 204, 403, p. 418; Gov. Galvez captures, 336.
- Modoc war, the, 637.
- Money, paper, 290, 317, 323, 352, 354, 655.
- Monmouth, battle of, 304, p. 231.
- Monocacy, battle of, 600.
- Monroe Doctrine, 441.
- Monroe, Fortress, conference at, 606.
- Monroe, James, President, 434; biography, 434; administration, 434-444; cabinet of, 435; message, 436.
- Montana admitted, 684, p. 419.
- Montcalm, Gen., 230, 231, 232, 233.
- Monterey surrendered, 490.
- Montgomery, Gen., 272.
- Montmorenci, chapel, 211; city, 232.
- Montreal, 66, 234, 272.
- Moore's Creek, battle of, 274.
- Moravians, in New York, 146; in North Carolina, 181; in Georgia, 194; in Ohio, 327.
- Morgan, Gen., 338-340; raid into Ohio, 573.
- Morgan, Margarette, 477.
- Mormons in Utah, 468, 520.
- Morris, Robert, 290.
- Morse, S. F. B., invents telegraph, 461, 480.
- Morton, Levi P., elected Vice-President, 679.
- Moultrie, Fort, 279, p. 231, 532.
- Moultrie, William, 277.
- Mound builders, 1, 5, 6.
- Mounds, ancient, 2-6.
- Mountain Meadows massacre, 520.
- Mugwumps, 667.
- Mühlenberg, Frederick, 372.
- Murfreesboro, battle of, 564.
- 402; President and Little Belt, 410; in war of 1812, 415; Virginia and Monitor, 548.
- Naval, college established by Henry of Portugal, 18; flag, the, 275; academy at Annapolis established, 499.
- Navigation Act, 99, 174, 175, p. 126, p. 128, 239.
- Navy, the new, 686.
- Nebraska Territory, 512; admitted, 616, p. 419.
- Necessity, Fort, built, 222.
- Negroes first vote at presidential election, 627.
- Nevada, part of Utah Territory, 503; admitted and settled, 616, p. 419.
- New Albion, 161.
- New Amsterdam, settled, 129; surrender of, to English, 142.
- New Berne, N.C., Indian massacre at, 178.
- New Castle, Del., 153, 158.
- New England, settlement of, 61, 104-116; and Virginia compared, 127.
- Newfoundland, Corte-Real at, 38; Cartier sails for, 66.
- New France, 66.
- New Hampshire, settled, 115, 127, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; ratifies Constitution, p. 418.
- New Haven, Conn., plundered, 311.
- New Jersey, coast explored, 65, 130; settled, 131, 147-150, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; included under New Albion, 161; Washington's retreat through, 286; ratifies the Constitution, p. 418.
- New Madrid, earthquake at, 417.
- New Mexico, occupied, 492; ceded to U. S., 495; organized as Territory, 503; admitted and settled, p. 419.
- New Netherland, settled, 129-137; fall of, 138-146.
- New Orleans, French in, 203; founded, 205; battle of, 430; fall of, 561; Cotton Exposition, 669; tragedy, 689.
- Newport, Christopher, 80, 83, 85.
- Newport, R.I., settled, 111; attacked, 305.
- Newspaper, first, at Boston, p. 128.
- New Sweden, 138, 141.
- New York State, settled, 129-137, 145, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; Dutch governors of, 132; named, 142; first Legislature of, 144; city besieged by British, 280; evacuated by British, 348; State claims Western lands, 351; city, seat of U. S. government, 359, 377; State ratifies Constitution, p. 418.
- Nez Percés war, 651.
- Niagara, 228, 231; battles about, 422.
- Nicolet, Jean, discovers Lake Michigan, 71.
- Ninety-Six besieged, 343, p. 231.
- Nonconformists, 104, 108, p. 126, p. 127.
- Non-importation, 250.
- Non-intercourse Act, 407.
- Norfolk, Va., burning of, 273; navy-yard seized, 535.
- North Carolina, explored, 56, 57, 59, 65; settlement and growth of, 172-181, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; Bancroft's eulogy, 181; Cherokeees attack, 236; riot in, 242; resistance to Stamp Act in, 247; bloodshed at Alamance, 255; Provincial Congress in, 260, 266; Tories in, 274; independent government of, 325; education in, 370; ratifies Constitution, 374, p. 418; cedes Western

N

lands to U. S., 387; negroes denied suffrage in, 476; secedes, 535.
 North Dakota admitted, 684, p. 419.
 North, Lord, 257.
 Northmen, 1, 13, 15, 16.
 Northwest Territory, ceded to U. S., 351; prosperity of, 360, 361, 362, 442; States and Territories formed from, 361, 403; capital of, 380; boundary decided by arbitration, 634.
 Norumbega, 115.
 Norwalk, Conn., burned, 311.
 Notre Dame Chapel, Quebec, 211.
 Nova Scotia, settled by French, 69; Jesuit mission in, 72; Acadia changed to, 215; captured by English, 227.
 Nullification measures, p. 128, 453, 454.
 Nuñez, Alvar. See De Vaca.

O

Oconostota, 186, 236.
 Oglethorpe, James Edward, 191, 192, 195, 196, 198, 199.
 Ohio, explored by La Salle, 73; mission among Wyandottes in, 78; settled, 361, 362, p. 418; Indian wars in, 380; admitted, 403, p. 418.
 Ohio Land Company, 220.
 Ohio River, military expedition to, 225.
 Ojeda, p. 61.
 Oklahoma Territory, 682; admitted, p. 419.
 Old Hickory, 437.
 Old Man Eloquent, 445.
 Old North State, 322.
 Old Rough and Ready, 490.
 Old Silver-leg, 140.
 Omnibus Bill, 503.
 Ontario, Fort, 231.
 Orange, Fort, 130.
 Ordinance of 1787, 360.
 Oregon, boundary of, 439, 486, 488; admitted, 523, p. 419.
 Oriskany, 295, p. 231.
 Orleans, Territory of, 433. See Louisiana.
 Osceola, 459.
 Oswego, Fort, 231.
 Otis, James, 240, 249.

P

Pacific Ocean, Magellan in, 36; Balboa discovers, 39.
 Pacific Railroad frauds, 640.
 Paedo, Juan, 190.
 Palatinates, the, 145, p. 126.
 Palmer, J. M., 701.
 Palo Alto, 490.
 Panic, financial, of 1837, 465; of 1873, 641.
 Paris, treaty of (1763), 234; treaty of (1783), 348.
 Parker, Sir Peter, 277, 427.
 Parsons' case, Virginia, 243.
 Patroons, the, 135.
 Paulus Hook, capture of, 313, p. 231.
 Peabody fund, 638.
 Peace Congress, 530.
 Pea Ridge, Ark., battle at, 547.
 Pendleton, George H., 603.
 Peninsular campaign, 549.

Penn, William, 147, 151-155, 157-160, 168.
 Pennsylvania, settled, 151-161, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; boundary between Maryland and, 159, 168; education in, 370; whisky insurrection in, 379; ratifies Constitution, p. 418; invaded by Lee, 569.
 Pennsylvania Canal, 449.
 Pensacola, occupied by Spanish, p. 128, 204; captured by Galvez, 336.
 Pension act, 436; dependent, 678.
 People's party, 688.
 Pepperrell, William, 216.
 Pequod war, 114.
 Perry, Commodore, 420, 515.
 Personal Liberty Bills, 477, 511.
 Petersburg, attacked, 593, 597, 598; evacuated, 607.
 Petersburg Railroad, 449.
 Philadelphia, Penn., settled, 154, p. 127, p. 128; growth of, 157; captured by Howe, 299; evacuated by British, 303; seat of government, 377.
 Philip, King, 119-121.
 Philippi, W. Va., battle at, 539.
 Philippine Islands discovered, 36.
 Phips, Sir William, 211.
 Phonograph, 664.
 Pickett at Seminary Ridge, 570.
 Pierce, Franklin, President, 509; biography, 510.
 Pilgrims, the, 104, 106, 117, 136, p. 126; landing of, 105; Georgian, 194.
 Pillow, Fort, 560, 566.
 Pilot Knob, battle of, 580.
 Pinckney, Charles C., 391; biography, 406.
 Pineda, Alvarez de, 41, 47, p. 61.
 Pinzon, Martin Alonzo, 25, p. 61.
 Pioneers in the West, 326.
 Pirates, Algerine, 384, 432.
 Pitt, Fort, 226.
 Pitt, William, 229, 241, 251.
 Pittsburg, 203, 226; riots, 649.
 Pittsburg Landing, battle of, 559.
 Plattsburg, battle of, 423.
 Plowden, Edmund, 161.
 Plymouth Company, 79.
 Plymouth, Mass., settlement at, 106, p. 127; government of, 108.
 Plymouth Rock, 106, p. 128.
 Pocahontas, 82, 88.
 Point Pleasant, battle of, 329.
 Poland, partition of, p. 126.
 Polk, James K., President, 486; biography, p. 300.
 Ponce de Leon, Juan, 40, p. 61.
 Pontiac's war, 235.
 Pope, Gen., 555.
 Popish Plot, the, p. 126.
 Porter, Capt. David, 475.
 Porto Rico pillaged, 48.
 Port Royal, N.S., founded by De Monts, 69; captured by Phips, 211; returned to French, 213; recaptured, 214; named Annapolis, 215.
 Port Royal, S.C., settled, 48, 51, 52.
 Portsmouth, R.I., settled, 111.
 Portuguese, early explorations of, 18, 37, 38; map of America, first (Corte-Real's), 38.
 Potato first introduced into England, 58, 61.

Powhatan, 81, 82, 88.
 Praying Indians, 126.
 Presbyterianism in Scotland, p. 126, p. 127.
 Presidential Succession Bill, 675.
 President's message, first, 396.
 Presidents of U. S., list of, p. 420.
 Presque Isle, 220.
 Prevost, Gen., 308, 310.
 Price, Gen., 562, 563, 580.
 Prideaux, Gen., 231.
 Prince George, Fort, 236, 237.
 Princeton, battle of, 287, 289, p. 231.
 Pring, Martin, 62, p. 62.
 Printing press, first, in United States, 116, 164; invented, 480.
 Privateers, in American ports, 378, 382, 475;
 Confederate, 543, 583, 632.
 Prohibition party, 667, 679.
 Protection, tariff for, 446, 447, 453, 454, 455, 474, 517.
 Protestants, French, 48, 183, 206; German, 145, 194.
 Providence, R.I., settled, 110, p. 127, p. 128.
 Prudhomme, Fort, 75.
 Pulaski, Count, 291, 316.
 Pullman strike, 699.
 Purisburg, the, 194.
 Puritans, the, 104, 117, 147, p. 126, p. 127.
 Putnam, Gen., 281, 297, 361.

Q

Quakers, persecutions of, 95, 117, 118, 172, p. 126, p. 127; settlements of, 103, 147, 149, 154, 156; meetings of, 150.
 Quartering Act, 252.
 Quebec, Cartier in, 66; founded by French, 70, 203; Franciscans in, 78; Phips's expedition to, 211; captured by English, 232, 233; besieged by Montgomery, 272, p. 231.
 Quebec Bill, the, 257.
 Queen Anne's war, 145, 169, 177, p. 126, p. 128, 209, 214.
 Queenston Heights, battle of, 414.
 Quincy, Josiah, 184, 433.
 Quivira, expedition to, 52.

R

Railroads, first, in U. S., p. 128; the National, 442; improvement in, 449, 461; the underground, 504; Continental, 508; Pacific, 628.
 Raisin River massacre, 418, 421.
 Raleigh, Sir Walter, 55-57, 59, 60.
 Randolph, Edmund, attorney-general, 372.
 Randolph, Peyton, 259.
 Reagan arrested, 612.
 Rebellion, the. See Southern Confederacy war.
 Reciprocity, 692.
 Récollet missionaries, p. 62.
 Reconstruction of Southern States, 617-620.
 Reform party in Rhode Island, 475.
 Regulators, North Carolina, 255.
 Reid, Whitelaw, nominated for Vice-President, 694.
 Religious intolerance in England, 98, 104; in Germany, 145; liberty, 102, 110, 152, 167, 177, 396.

Republican party, 389, 396, 445, 450, 516, 524; divides, 635.
 Resaca de la Palma, 490.
 Restoration in England, the, p. 126.
 Resumption of specie payment, 655.
 Revenue, tariff for, 373, 436, 446, 517.
 Revolution, American, p. 128, 261-324, 338-345; French, 378.
 Revolutionary events, Centennial celebrations of, 644, 659.
 Reynolds, Gen., 570.
 Rhode Island, settled, 110, 111, 127, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; Narragansetts in, exterminated, 120; attacked by British, 305, p. 231; ratifies Constitution, 374, p. 418.
 Ribault, 48-50, p. 62, 190.
 Rice, culture of, 184.
 Richmond, Va., Confederate capital moved to, 537; movements around, 551-553, 555, 562, 566; evacuated, 607.
 Rich Mountain, W. Va., battle at, 539.
 Ringgold, battle of, 577.
 Riot in New York over draft, 568.
 Roanoke Island, first settlement, 56, 57; second settlement, 59; captured, 547.
 Robertson, James, 325, 334, 387.
 Rogers, Commodore, 410.
 Rolfe, John, 87, 88.
 Rosecrans, Gen., 539, 563, 564, 574, 575.
 Roundheads, 98.
 Roxbury, Mass., settled, 108.
 Russia sells Alaska to U. S., 625.
 Rutledge, John, 259, 372.
 Ryswick, treaty of, 213.

S

Sackett's Harbor, 419.
 Saguenay River explored, 68.
 St. Augustine, 49; expedition against, 187.
 St. Clair, Gen., 293, 297, 361, 380.
 St. Genevieve, Mo., founded, 208, 397, p. 418.
 St. John, J. P., nominated for President, 667.
 St. Johns, Can., 272.
 St. Johns, the, Florida, 49.
 St. Lawrence, Gulf of, 68.
 St. Lawrence River, Cartier discovers, 66; Champlain in the, 70; French occupy, 203.
 St. Louis Bridge, 650.
 St. Louis, Fort, 76, 481.
 St. Louis, French in, 203; founded, 397.
 St. Marks, Fla., captured, 437.
 St. Marys, Md., settled, 163, p. 127, p. 128.
 St. Philip, Fort, 561.
 St. Pierre, 221.
 Salem, Mass., settled, 108, p. 128; witchcraft in, 124.
 Salem, N.C., settled, 181.
 Salt Lake City, Utah, founded, 468.
 Salzburger in Georgia, 194.
 Samoset, 106.
 San Antonio, battles of, 483, 494.
 Sancoix Bridge, 294.
 Sander's Creek. See Camden, battle of.
 Sandusky, Fort, 220, p. 418.
 Sandy Creek Expedition, 225.
 San Mateo. See Caroline, Fort.
 San Miguel settled, 42.
 San Salvador, 27.

- Santa Anna, Gen., in Texas revolution, 482-485; in Mexican war, 494.
 Santa Fé, N. Mex., 52, 492.
 Saratoga, battles of, 296, p. 231.
 Sassafraz, an important production in the Colonies, 58, 61, 62.
 Savannah, Ga., settled, 192, p. 127; fall of, 308; siege of, 316; evacuated by British, 348, p. 231; captured by Sherman, 602.
 Schenectady, N. Y., surprised by Indians, 210.
 Schofield, Gen., 591, 552.
 Schools, first American, 52, p. 128.
 Schuyler, Gen., 296, 297.
 Scotch migration to America, 180.
 Scotch-Irish migration, 181.
 Scotland, Presbyterianism in, p. 126, p. 127.
 Scott, Winfield, in war of 1812, 422; in Mexican war, 493, 494; biography, 509; in Southern Confederacy war, 537, 541.
 Scovellites, insurrection of, 273.
 Secession, 526-529.
 Second Continental Congress, 267.
 Sedition Law, 392, 395.
 Seminary Ridge, 570.
 Seminole war, 437, 459.
 Semmes, Raphael, 583.
 Separatists, 104, 108.
 Seven-Days' battle, 553.
 Seven Pines, battle of, 550.
 Seven-Years' war. See French and Indian war.
 Sevier, John, 322, 325, 363, 387.
 Seward, William H., 505.
 Sewall, Arthur, 701.
 Sewing machine, the first, 500.
 Seymour, Horatio, 627.
 Shaftesbury, Earl of, 174.
 Shakamaxon, 155.
 Shays's Rebellion, 354.
 Shelby, Evan, 333.
 Shelby, Isaac, 386, 387.
 Shenandoah Valley, 103; Sigel's campaign in the, 599.
 Sheridan, Gen., 564, 574, 576; valley raid of, 601.
 Sherman Act, 696.
 Sherman, Gen., 571, 576, 577, 585, 588, 589, 591, 602, 623; Memoirs, 677.
 Sherman-Johnston Armistice, 609, 611.
 Sherman Roger, 259, 278.
 Shiloh, battle of, 559.
 Shirley, Gov., 216, 228, 231.
 Sigel, Col., 546, 547, 599.
 Silver campaign, 701.
 Silver demonetization and remonetization, 654.
 Silver purchasing clause, repeal of, 696.
 Silver-leg, Old, 140. See Stuyvesant, Peter.
 Sioux Indian war of 1876, 645.
 Slater Fund, 639.
 Slaveholders' Convention, 476.
 Slavery in America, 90; first protest against, 156; in Carolina, 187; in Georgia, 196, 405; in Virginia, 273, 405, 476; prohibited in N. W. Ter., 360; prohibited in U. S. by importation, 405; in Missouri, 440; question reviewed, 471, 476, 491, 502, 504, 505; Personal Liberty Bills, 477, 511; prohibited in District of Columbia, 503; Fugitive-Slave Law, 504; in 1860, 524; Lincoln on, 533, 565.
 Slave ship, first, 405.
 Smith, Capt. John, 80-83, 85.
 Smith, Gen. E. Kirby, surrenders, 611.
 Smuggling, 240.
 Snorro, 15.
 Solemn League and Covenant, p. 126.
 Solis, p. 61.
 South American Republics, 441.
 Southampton, Va., slave insurrection at, 476.
 South Carolina, settlement and growth of, 182-189, p. 127, p. 128, p. 418; Cherokees attack, 236; Tory insurrection in, 273; adopts State Constitution, 349; education in, 370; slavery in, 405; secedes, 526; ratifies the Constitution, p. 418.
 South Dakota admitted, 684, p. 419.
 Southern Confederacy war, 533-614; leading battles of, p. 383; generals of, p. 384.
 Southern States, adopt 13th amendment, 615; troops withdrawn from, 648.
 South Kingston, R. I., battle at, 120.
 South Mountain, battle of, 556.
 Spain, cedes Florida to England, 234; claims of, respecting Southwestern boundary, 354; sells Florida to the U. S., 439.
 Spaniards, in Carolina, 187; in Georgia, 190; in Florida, 204.
 Spanish, early explorations and settlements of, 36, 37, 39, 40, 43-47, 49, 52, 204, 208; war in Georgia, 195.
 Spanish Armada, p. 126.
 Spanish Succession, war of. See Queen Anne's war.
 Specie payment, withdrawal of, 465; resumption of, 655.
 Spottswood, Gov., 103.
 Spottsylvania Court House, battle of, 595.
 Springfield, Conn., settled, 113.
 Squatter Sovereignty Law, 512.
 Stamp Act, 181, 245; opposition to, in Colonies, 246-251; Congress, 249; repealed, 251.
 Stanwix, Fort, 238, 295, 325, p. 231.
 Star Chamber, p. 126.
 Star-Spangled Banner, 428.
 State constitutions, 349.
 States, admission, area, population, and settlement of, p. 418, p. 419.
 Statue of Liberty, 673.
 Steamboat, first, p. 128, 404.
 Steamer, the first ocean, 438.
 Steamers, Cunard line of, established, 470.
 Steel, manufacture of, 87.
 Stephens, Alexander H., 505, 531; meets Lincoln, 606; on War between the States, 677.
 Stephens, Miss Mollie, 652.
 Stephenson, Fort, 419.
 Steuben, Baron, 291, 301.
 Stevenson, Adlai E., nominated for Vice-President, 694.
 Stillman's Run, 457.
 Stillwater, battles of, 296, p. 231.
 Stone River, battle of, 564.
 Stony Point, captured by British, 311; recaptured, 312, p. 231.
 Stuart, Gen. J. E. B., 552.
 Stuyvesant, Peter, 132, 140, 141, 142.
 Sub-treasury law, 466.
 Sugar Act, the, 244.
 Sullivan, Gen., 305, 307.
 Sullivan's Island, 277.
 Sumner, Charles, 505.

Sumter, Col., 319, 321.
 Sumter, Fort, 532; bombardment of, 534; Federals regain, 605.
 Sunbury, Ga., attacked, 308, p. 231.
 Sunk lands, the, 417.
 Swamp Fox, the (General Marion). See Marion, Francis.
 Swedish, settlements, 138, 153, 154; forts captured by Stuyvesant, 141, p. 128.
 Swiss Colony in North Carolina, 178.

T

Tables, of progress of human development, p. 23; principal voyages to America before 1525, p. 61; principal voyages to U. S., 1525-1609, p. 62; explorations by French, p. 62; European events that affected America, p. 126; demands of the Puritans, p. 127; synopsis of the Colonies, p. 127; English rulers and synchronous American events, p. 128; exploration and settlement of the U. S., p. 151; leading battles and commanders of the Revolution, p. 231; Louisiana, p. 326; boundary of the U. S., p. 327; civil war, p. 383; States and Territories (census of 1890), p. 418; Presidents of U. S., p. 420.
 Tariff, 373, 436; of 1824 and 1828, 446, 447; of 1833, 453, 454, 455; of 1842, 474, 502; of 1857, 517; reform, 661; synopsis of, 661; McKinley Bill, 691; reciprocity, 692; Wilson Bill, 697; Act of 1897, 702.
 Tarleton's Legion, 318, 321.
 Taxation in Colonies, 99, 102, 143, 239-253.
 Taylor, Zachary, in Black Hawk war, 457; in Seminole war, 459; in Mexican war, 489, 490, 493; President, 501; biography, 502.
 Tea, taxed, 253; thrown into Boston harbor, 256; sent home by New York and Philadelphia, 256; stored in damp cellars in South Carolina, 256.
 Tecumseh, 411, 419, 421, 464.
 Telegraph invented, 461, 480.
 Telephone inventions, 664.
 Tellico, Fort, 236.
 Tennessee, explorations in, 204; Bienville attacks Chickasaws in, 207; Cherokee war in, 236, 237; settled, 334, 361, 362, p. 418; education in, 371; admitted, 387, p. 418; secedes, 535. See Franklin, State of.
 Territories, statistics from census of 1890 concerning, p. 419.
 Territory, transfers of, in U. S., p. 421.
 Terry, Gen., at Fort Fisher, 604.
 Test Act, the, p. 126.
 Test oaths in Southern States, 620.
 Texas, French expedition to, 208; early settlements in, 481, p. 419; dispute over eastern boundary, 481, 486, 489; becomes independent, 482, 485; admitted, 485, 486, 498, p. 419; secedes, 528; movements in, 581, 582.
 Thames, battle of the, 421, 464.
 Thirty-ninth Congress, 527.
 Thirty-Years' war, p. 126.
 Thomas, Dr., killed by Modocs, 637.
 Thomas, Evan, 440.
 Thomas, Gen. G. H., 547, 562, 574, 576, 592.
 Thorfinn in Vinland, 15.
 Thorwaldsen, 15.

Thurman, A. G., for Vice-President, 679.
 Ticonderoga, 228, 230, 264, 293, 294, p. 231.
 Tilden, S. J., nominated for President, 646.
 Tippecanoe, battle of, 411.
 Tobacco culture, 58, 61, 87, 97, 171.
 Toleration Act, 167, p. 126, p. 128.
 Tomo-chi-chi, 192.
 Tonti, Fort, 77.
 Toombs, Robert, 505.
 Tories of North Carolina, 274.
 Toronto attacked, 419.
 Toscanelli, map of, 19, 40.
 Touching-the-pocket nerve, 250.
 Transylvania, 330.
 Transylvania University, 371.
 Treaty, of Penn, with Indians, 155; of England with Cherokees, 186; of Oglethorpe with Indians, 192; of Bienville with Indians, 207; of Ryswick, 213; of Utrecht, 215; of Aix-la-Chapelle, 217; of Paris (1763), 234; at Fort Stanwix, 238, 325; of Versailles, 348; of Paris (1783), 348; Wayne's, with Indians, 381; Jay's with England, 382; with Spain, 383; with Algiers, 384; with Tripoli, 399; of Ghent, 431, 445; Ashburton, 478; of Washington, 488; of Guadalupe-Hidalgo, 495; with Japan, 515; of Washington (Alabama arbitration), 632; with China, 660.
 Trent affair, the, 544.
 Trenton, battle of, 287, p. 231.
 Trinidad discovered, 29.
 Tripoli, war with, 399.
 Tryon, Gov., 247, 255, 311, 325.
 Tuscaroras, 178.
 Tyler, John, Vice-President, 472; President, 473; biography, p. 293.

U

Underground railroad, 504.
 Union Party, 524.
 United States, rise of, p. 128; boundaries of, p. 327.
 University of Georgia, 370.
 University of Ohio, 371.
 University of Virginia, 368, 396.
 Utah, organized as Territory, 468, 503; admitted, 698, p. 419.
 Utrecht, treaty of, 215.

V

Valley Forge, 300.
 Van Buren, Martin, Vice-President, 464; President, 464; biography, 464.
 Van Dorn, Gen., 562, 563, 571, 579.
 Van Rensselaer, Gen., 414.
 Van Twiller, Wouter, 132, 136, 137.
 Velasco, Louis de, p. 62.
 Venango, Fort, 220, 221.
 Venezuelan boundary trouble, 700.
 Vera Cruz captured, 494.
 Vermont, admitted, 385, p. 418; settled, p. 418.
 Verazani, 65, p. 61.
 Versailles, treaty of, 348.
 Vespucci, Amerigo, 34, 40, p. 61.
 Vestries of Virginia, 102.
 Vicksburg, siege of, 571.
 Vincennes, 208, 332, p. 418.

Vinland, discovery of, 14; settlement in, 15.
 Virginia, early attempts to settle, 42, 56, 57;
 permanent settlement in, 80, 81, p. 127, p.
 128, p. 418; early governors of, 85, 87, 99,
 103; Constitution, 93; Indian massacres in,
 94, 97; royal province, 95; counties, 96;
 vestries of, 102; compared with New Eng-
 land, 127; parsons' case, 243; slave insur-
 rection in, 273; County of Illinois estab-
 lished, 332; cedes to U. S. claims to Western
 lands, 351; education in, 368, 369, 370, 396;
 slavery introduced in, 405; secedes, 535;
 campaign in, 593; ratifies Constitution,
 p. 418.
 Virginia and Monitor, 548.
 Virginia Company. See London Company.
 Volunteers in the Southern Confederacy war,
 535.

W

Waldseemüller, Martin, 34.
 Wallace, Gen., at Monocacy, 600.
 Walloomsac, battle of, 294.
 Walloons, the, 131.
 War, Bacon's Rebellion, 100; Pequod, 114;
 King Philip's, 119, p. 128; Clayborne's Re-
 bellion, 165, 168, p. 128; Spanish, in Geor-
 gia, 195; between England and Holland, p.
 126; Thirty-Years', p. 126; of Louis XIV.,
 p. 126; Queen Anne's, p. 126, p. 128, 209,
 214; King George's, p. 126, p. 128, 209,
 216; French and Indian, p. 126, p. 128, 209,
 218-238; King William's, p. 128, 209, 210;
 Revolutionary, p. 128, 261-324, 338-345; of
 1812, p. 128, 412; Mexican, p. 128, 489-495;
 of the Southern Confederacy, p. 128, 533-614;
 Pontiac's, 235; Cherokee, 236, 331; between
 England and France, 302; Lord Dunmore's,
 328; French Revolution, 378; Indian, in
 Ohio, 380; with Tripoli, 399; Creek, in
 Georgia and Alabama, 424; Seminole, in
 Florida, 437, 459; Black Hawk, 457; Sioux
 Indian, of 1876, 645.
 Warren, Gen., 216, 270.
 Warwick, R.I., settled, 111.
 Washington, D.C., seat of government, 377,
 394; captured by British, 426; threatened
 by Early, 600.
 Washington, Fort, N.Y., captured by British,
 285, p. 231.
 Washington, Fort, O., 380.
 Washington, George, sent to Fort Venango,
 221; at Fort Necessity and Great Mead-
 ows, 222; aide to Braddock, 224; captures
 Fort Duquesne, 226; commander in chief,
 267, 280; drives British from Boston, 276;
 in New York, 280; in Long Island, 282; at
 White Plains, 284; retreat through New
 Jersey, 286; at Trenton, 287, 288; at Prince-
 ton, 289; at Brandywine and Germantown,
 298, 299; at Valley Forge, 300; at Mon-
 mouth, 304; at Stony Point, 312; at Morris-
 town, 317; at Cowpens, 339; at Yorktown,
 345; proposed as king, 347; dissolves the
 army, and retires, 348; president of Consti-
 tutional Convention, 355, 356; elected Presi-
 dent, 358; inauguration of, 359; biography,
 372; cabinet, 372; selects site of capital, 377;

maintains neutral position toward France,
 378; death of, 393; monument to, 393, 666.
 Washington (State) admitted, 684, p. 419.
 Washington, treaty of, 488, 632.
 Watauga Settlement, 322, 325, 330, 331.
 Watertown, Mass., settled, 108.
 Watson, T. E., 701.
 Wayne, Fort, 220, 380.
 Wayne, Gen., 299, 312, 380, 381.
 Weathersford, 425.
 Weaver, J. B., nominated for President, 694.
 Webster, Daniel, 453, 455, 478, 505.
 Wesley, Charles, 198.
 Wesley, John, 198.
 Western lands, 351.
 West Jersey settled, 131, 147.
 West Point betrayed by Arnold, 323, 324.
 West Virginia, settled, 220, p. 419; engage-
 ments in, during civil war, 539; separates
 from Virginia, 539; admitted, 616, p. 419.
 Wethersfield, Conn., settled, 113.
 Weymouth, George, 63, p. 62.
 Wheeler, W. A., elected Vice-President, 646.
 Whig party, 445, 516.
 Whisky insurrection, 379.
 White, John, 59, p. 62.
 White Plains, battle of, 284, p. 231.
 Whitney, F., 38.
 Wilderness, title of the, 594.
 Wilkes Exploring Expedition, 469, 544.
 William and Mary College, 101, 365.
 William Henry, Fort, 228, 230.
 Williams, Roger, 110, 111, 112, 114.
 Williamsburg, Va., 101.
 Wilmington, Del., settled, 138, 180, p. 127.
 Wilmot Proviso, 491.
 Wilson Bill, 697.
 Wilson, Henry, elected Vice-President, 635.
 Wilson, James, in Supreme Court, 372.
 Windsor, Conn., settled, 113, p. 127.
 Wingfield, Edward, 80, 81.
 Winthrop, John, 108.
 Wirt, William, attorney-general, 435; presi-
 dential candidate, 464.
 Wisconsin, Joliet and Marquette in, 72; formed
 from Northwest Territory, 361; admitted,
 498, p. 419.
 Witchcraft, Salem, 124.
 Wolfe captures Louisburg, 227; takes Quebec,
 232, 233.
 Woolman, John, 150.
 World's Fair, London, 507; Chicago, 693.
 Writs of Assistance, 240.
 Wyoming (Penn.) massacre, 306, p. 231.
 Wyoming admitted, 684, p. 419.

Y

Yale College established, 125.
 Yellow-fever epidemic of 1878, 652.
 Yemassee, Indians, 178, 187.
 York, Duke of, 143, 147, 153.
 Yorktown, surrender of, 345, p. 231; Centen-
 nial, 659.
 Young, Brigham, 468.

Z

Zinzendorf, Count, 146.





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